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NUMBER 1

Educational News and Editorial Comment

PROCEDURES IN THE SELECTION AND APPOINTMENT OF TEACHERS

A project of the National Survey of Secondary Education on which more progress has been made to date than on most others and from which, therefore, some preliminary information is already at hand is an inquiry into the methods and procedures followed in the selection and appointment of teachers.

Because a survey of teachers and teacher-training is also going forward at the present time under the auspices of the United States Office of Education, the inquiry into procedures in the selection and appointment of teachers is the only project of the survey of secondary education that will have to do chiefly with teachers. Work on this project has moved somewhat more rapidly than that on others because the Office of Education was committed to the making of a study of this important subject before the survey was organized. What was done when the survey took over the project was to plan the investigation in such a way that the results would throw light on the procedures in the selection and appointment of teachers in junior high schools and in senior and four-year high schools in comparison with the procedures in the selection and appointment of teachers in elementary schools and in school systems generally.

The complete project, as it is being worked out by Walter S. Deffenbaugh and William H. Zeigel of the survey staff, will deal with several phases of the whole problem: (1) Inquiry is being made into *the agencies and procedures utilized for making contacts with prospective teachers*. This inquiry includes a study of the frequency of use of agencies—such as placement bureaus of higher institutions, private teachers' agencies, and state appointment bureaus—and of unsolicited applications of individual teachers. It includes also a special study of policies with respect to personal interviews, that is, with respect to the insistence on interviews and by what school officer they are made. (2) Consideration is being given to *the methods of collecting information about prospective teachers*, including information as to whether and by whom visits to prospective teachers are made. (3) Inquiry is being made into *the regulations of school boards which affect teacher selection*. (4) The project is determining *the types of appointments made*, whether probationary or permanent. (5) A study of *the methods used to retain teachers of high quality* is being made. (6) *The specific procedures followed in appointing teachers* are being studied, that is, which officials (school-board members, committees of the board, or superintendent) take initial steps in securing teachers and which officials nominate and appoint teachers. The project includes also a comparison of procedures in city school systems, in county school systems, and in independent secondary schools.

The evidence from this project even in its present incomplete stage is much too extensive to be reported here, but many readers will be interested to have such preliminary information as can be given in the space that can be spared. Perhaps a part of the evidence on the last of the six phases listed will be as interesting as any other. For the purposes of the study the procedures in the appointment of teachers were classified into four main groups, designated in Tables I and II as A, B, C, and D. Where Procedure A is used, the school board or a committee of the board appoints the teachers without official participation by the superintendent. In Procedure B the superintendent takes the initial step by nominating candidates, the final step being one of three: (1) appointment by the board, (2) approval of the nomination by a committee of the board

followed by appointment by the board, and (3) appointment by a committee and approval by the board. Where Procedure C is used, the superintendent makes the appointment, which is confirmed or rejected by the board. Procedure D includes a wide variety of practices, mostly combinations of the foregoing types. The city systems represented in the evidence were divided according to population in

TABLE I
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PROCEDURES USED IN THE APPOINTMENT OF TEACHERS IN 573 CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS OF FIVE POPULATION GROUPS

Procedure	Population Group					All Systems
	I	II	III	IV	V	
A.....	0.0	1.2	0.4	0.2	3.7	1.2
B.....	35.2	45.3	38.1	46.1	58.0	46.6
C.....	39.6	24.7	28.2	22.9	20.6	24.8
D.....	25.3	28.7	33.5	30.7	17.8	27.4

TABLE II
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PROCEDURES USED IN THE APPOINTMENT OF TEACHERS FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN SYSTEMS IN CITIES WITH POPULATIONS OF 10,000 TO 30,000

Procedure	Elementary Schools	Junior High Schools	Senior High Schools
A.....	0.8	0.0	0.0
B.....	39.2	35.2	39.0
C.....	27.2	29.7	28.0
D.....	32.8	35.2	33.0

the following five groups; Group I, cities with populations of 100,000 and over; Group II, cities with populations of 30,000 to 100,000; Group III, cities with populations of 10,000 to 30,000; Group IV, cities with populations of 2,500 to 10,000; Group V, cities with populations of less than 2,500.

By combining the percentages for Procedures B and C reported in Table I, we conclude that, as is to be expected, the superintendent usually takes the initiative in the appointment of teachers. It is interesting to note that the percentages for Procedure B increase and

those for Procedure C decrease with the size of the systems. This decrease reflects some unwillingness or hesitancy on the part of school boards in smaller systems to turn over full initiative in these matters to the superintendent. This situation is shown again in the percentage of the group of smallest systems in which the board appoints teachers without participation by the superintendent (Procedure A). Among the combinations of procedures included in Procedure D are some in which the boards appear to be similarly hesitant. It is reassuring, however, to note how far practices in these systems have progressed toward the recognition of the principle that initiative in professional functions should be delegated to professional workers and not retained by laymen.

As may be judged from the percentages in Table II, the procedures in appointing teachers to the different grade levels within these city systems are much alike. A glance at the horizontal rows of percentages will show that these percentages are not far from identical for each of the four types of procedures listed. This evidence sets aside the belief sometimes entertained that procedures of appointing elementary-school and high-school teachers differ, at least with respect to these final steps of appointment. Evidence on other phases of the whole project will disclose whether there are significant differences in the preliminary stages of selection.

Report on the entire project will be made available in print when work on it and on the survey as a whole has been carried nearer to completion. The plans include gathering evidence at first hand by visits to schools and systems for which the most noteworthy practices are reported.

THE LEGAL STATUS OF BIBLE-READING IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Newspaper dispatches early in November carried the information that a majority of the electorate of Arkansas had approved Initiated Act No. 1, "To provide for the reverent daily reading of the English Bible without comment in all the public tax supported schools of the state of Arkansas up to and including high schools." It will be recalled that two years earlier the same electorate by the same route passed an anti-evolution law. Interest in the passage of the more recent act makes timely the appearance of a digest of the laws

and decisions on Bible-reading and religious instruction in the schools prepared by Ward W. Keesecker, associate specialist in school legislation in the United States Office of Education, which is published as Bulletin No. 14, 1930, under the title *Legal Status of Bible Reading and Religious Instruction in Public Schools*.

Because of the difficulty of generalization from such a wide variety of specific laws and judicial decisions, Mr. Keesecker wisely devotes most of this bulletin to reports for individual states. He does, nevertheless, at one point undertake to summarize the "present legal status." Most of this brief summary is given in the following quotation. In view of the result of the recent vote in Arkansas the reader will need to add one to the number of states reported as requiring by statute the reading of the Bible.

Practically all of the states have constitutional or statutory provisions which expressly prohibit sectarian instruction or the teaching of religious doctrines or tenets in the public schools, and in all states such prohibition is either expressed or implied. It has been held that public funds cannot be used for sectarian purposes, even in the absence of an express constitutional provision to that effect.¹ The enforcement of this prohibition involves perplexing questions, chief of which are: What constitutes sectarian instruction? What is religious doctrine? Is the reading of a particular version of the Bible—as, for example, the King James translation—sectarian instruction and, therefore, prohibited? On these questions sharp and considerable controversy has been waged, reaching in more than a score of cases to the highest state courts for adjudication. The questions yet remain somewhat unsettled.

It may be said, however, that in thirty-six states, comprising eleven which require Bible-reading, six which specifically permit it, and twenty in which it is generally construed as permissible, Bible-reading in public schools is generally not regarded as sectarian instruction or influence.

No constitution or legislative enactment of the American commonwealths has specifically declared the Bible to be a sectarian book, or expressly prohibited its reading in public schools. Also no law requiring Bible-reading in public schools has ever been held unconstitutional by the courts, although in 1929 the Supreme Court of South Dakota held a legislative enactment specifically permitting Bible-reading without comment to be in conflict with the constitution of that state.

Bible-reading in public schools is now expressly required by statute in eleven states (and by order of the Board of Education in the District of Columbia); it is specifically permitted by law in five states; and is generally construed as lawful in twenty of the thirty-two remaining states whose constitutions and

¹ *Millard v. Board of Education*, 10 N.E. 669; *State v. Schreve*, 59 L.R.A. 927.

statutes do not expressly require, permit, or forbid it. Bible-reading in public schools is now held lawful by supreme-court decisions of twelve states. Six of these decisions are found in states whose laws either require or specifically permit Bible-reading, and six in states whose laws are silent on the subject.

Among the twelve states where Bible-reading in public schools is generally regarded as unlawful, four state-court decisions, one state attorney general's opinion, and one state superintendent's rule are adverse to the said reading; and in six states Bible-reading is excluded from public schools by general consent or implied prohibition. In all of these twelve states the constitutions and statutes are silent on the specific question of Bible-reading. In these states it may be said that Bible-reading in public schools is generally construed as sectarian instruction or influence, or an infringement of religious liberty and in conflict with their respective state constitutions.

The states whose laws are silent on Bible-reading have furnished most of the state supreme court decisions on the subject. In these states Bible-reading has been regarded a matter to be determined at the discretion of the state or local school authorities; and the courts of a few states have taken the position that where the legislature has vested the administration of public education in school boards or other officials the courts were without authority to interfere with the regulation of such officials unless abuse of their authority were clearly shown. This position is clearly illustrated in the state of Ohio. Following the principle that it rests with the school authorities to determine what shall be taught in public schools, the Supreme Court of Ohio in 1872 sustained a school-board rule prohibiting Bible-reading and in 1895 a court decision of common pleas (*Nessle v. Hum*, 1 Ohio N.P. 140) sustained a school-board rule requiring Bible-reading. The decisions of Maine, Minnesota, and Nebraska manifested a similar position.

THE LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGE MOVEMENT

From all appearances, we are entering a period of promotion of the liberal-arts college. Following the adjournment of the last annual meeting of the Association of American Colleges in Washington, D.C., in January, 1930, there was a gathering of more than forty college presidents and representatives of denominational boards of education. At this gathering provision was made for the appointment of a committee to call a meeting of representatives of all liberal-arts colleges in the United States who might be interested in a movement to put on a financial campaign in the interest of liberal-arts colleges. This meeting, the Conference of Liberal Arts Colleges, was held in Chicago in March. Representatives from 278 colleges were present. At the conference provision was made for a Committee of Fifteen, which met in July and, during the progress

of its deliberations, drew up resolutions regarded as the present platform of the movement. More recently the first number of the *Liberal Arts College Bulletin*, the official organ of the movement, has appeared. In addition to a number of interesting articles dealing with the liberal-arts college and the reports of the meetings already mentioned, this publication contains a list of the 175 colleges which had officially joined the movement at the time the bulletin went to press. An examination of the list shows that almost all the institutions are of the "small-college" type, although the intent appears to be the association of other liberal-arts colleges with the movement.

The movement is frankly promotional. There can be no doubt of the convictions entertained by its leaders on behalf of the institution they have been organized to foster. A few quotations of the expressions of faith in the movement should not be out of place. In describing the activities and the spirit of the conference in Chicago, one writer expresses himself as follows:

Thus came into being the Liberal Arts College Movement. But a mere narration of the facts gives no impression of the spirit that pervaded the conference in which the movement was projected. The delegates felt that they were representatives of A GREAT CAUSE. In the Liberal Arts the culture of the ages loomed before them in a sort of radiant glory.

Another writer asserts that "the colleges of liberal arts belong to a divine order," and an editorial ends by saying, "The Liberal Arts College Movement is now under way. Its ultimate success is certain. We believe it is a movement born of God."

We may hope that these writers would not deny the right of other enthusiasts to claim as much of divine origin for other units in the American system of education, namely, the elementary school, the junior high school, the senior high school, the junior college, the vocational or professional school, and the university. We may hope also that they will not aim to restrict the activities of the movement to perfervid promotion and special pleading but that they will be disposed to include a program of inquiry and improvement that will aid the college in rendering in the future an even greater service than it has rendered in the past.

THE TYPE OF HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM AND PREPARATION
FOR COLLEGE

The findings of at least two recent investigations relating to preparation for college should be disconcerting to those who insist on the study of specific subjects and subject-groups in the high school for those who will continue their education in higher institutions. One of these investigations was made by James Anderson Yates and was published as a Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service of the University of Kentucky under the title *The Type of High School Curriculum Which Gives the Best Preparation for College*. The author had at hand for his use complete high-school and college records and certain other types of evidence (including measures of mental ability) for 706 graduates of the University of Kentucky, Indiana University, and the University of Cincinnati. The following conclusions were drawn.

1. University graduates whose entrance credits were from the same high-school curriculum were paired according to approximately equal mental ability, and no significant difference was found in their college success or rank. The influence of the type of high-school curriculum was negligible.
2. The chances are largely in favor of the success or rank earned in any of the four types of high-school curriculums leading to similar success or rank in college.
3. The low correlations found between high-school subject matter and success in college emphasize the importance of other factors involved, which may be summed up in terms of teacher ability and pupil ability and activity.
4. The multiple correlations between high-school subjects and college success were nearly equal in the three universities, but were low, emphasizing the importance of additional factors in high-school and college marks.
5. The vocational subjects in each university showed the lowest correlation value. A possible explanation is that this type of work is not as well organized as the work in the other fields. Also, tradition has it that the poorer students in high school are placed in this type of work. When students of equal mental ability are paired, . . . the difference was too small to be significant.
6. This study does not find sufficient facts to justify colleges in prescribing certain subjects for college admission. However, the facts found do warrant colleges in demanding a high-school curriculum well done.

The second investigation was completed in June, 1930, by P. Roy Brammell and pertains to students in the University of Washington, in Seattle. The report of the study is as yet unpublished. It is more comprehensive of criteria for admission than the investigation by Yates, but the two studies have a great deal in common in both

method and results. Brammell found little or no advantage of any one academic subject over the others in college preparation, and he found only a small advantage for students who had had only academic work in high school as compared with those who had had considerable amounts of non-academic work.

It is too soon to conclude from these studies that the subjects taken in high school are negligible factors in preparation for college. We cannot yet be certain that the particular situations investigated are sufficiently representative of higher institutions in general to permit generalization. The evidence is, nevertheless, sufficiently conclusive to put the advocates of specific preparation on the defensive and to prompt us to demand that they justify the specific prescriptions they would make. It is almost startling to contemplate what a revolution in requirements for admission would be effected by the complete establishment and general acceptance of the conclusions of these studies.

HOW LARGE CAN A GOOD SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL BE?

One result of the swelling proportions of youth who are pouring into the high schools in our population centers has been the large enrolments in individual schools. There has been a great deal of scattered discussion of how large a high school can be and still provide adequately for the interests of individual pupils, but there appear so far to have been no published results of a systematic effort to ascertain the practices and policies of the larger systems in this important phase of the organization of secondary schools. Chicago for some time has been facing this problem of swelling enrolments and the question of the maximum desirable enrolment for individual schools. Recently Willis E. Tower, district superintendent of senior high schools in Chicago, made inquiry of those in charge of senior high schools in a number of cities and high-school districts as to their practices, policies, and opinions in this field. He has prepared a statement of the problem as it applies to Chicago and of the results of his inquiry, which we are pleased to reproduce in full.

On account of the continued rapid increase in enrolment in the senior high schools in Chicago, it has been necessary to accelerate the building program for senior high schools this year. This rapid growth has been continuous for many years. In 1919 the enrolment for the end of September in senior high

schools was 36,281. In September, 1925, the enrolment for senior high schools was 60,840, an increase of more than 24,000 in six years, or more than 4,000 a year. In September, 1930, the enrolment of the twenty-four senior high schools was 88,202, a growth in five years of 27,362, an average annual increase of nearly 5,500 pupils.

Since 1925 the Chicago Board of Education has been developing a junior high school system; in October, 1930, twenty-four junior high schools were in operation. It was believed by the Bureau of Building Survey that the rapid expansion of the junior high schools would relieve the senior high schools. However, while the twenty-four junior high schools had a membership in September, 1930, of 33,285, the senior high schools have continued to grow at an increased rate, as indicated, and this fact makes necessary the construction of new senior high school buildings and of additions to present buildings.

In an endeavor to learn the present practice of the larger cities of the country in constructing new senior high schools, the writer prepared a questionnaire, which was sent to the superintendents in charge of high schools in eight of the larger cities and in suburban communities about Chicago. The questionnaire read as follows:

"In view of the large increase in our senior high school membership in Chicago this fall, we find it necessary to accelerate our senior high school building program.

"We are naturally interested, in these times of financial stress, in erecting the most efficient type of senior high school building, giving consideration to (a) the most effective development of student abilities, (b) the most satisfactory size and organization of faculty for teaching and administration, and (c) the average cost per pupil capacity of the building. In view of the points just mentioned, what size of senior high school building, in terms of its pupil capacity, would you recommend, under modern conditions, as best meeting the situation: (a) below 2,000 capacity, (b) 2,000 to 3,000 capacity, (c) 3,000 to 4,000 capacity, (d) over 4,000 capacity?

"In view of your extended experience in high-school administration, I shall be very glad to have your judgment in the matter, with any reasons or comments you wish to make regarding the capacity indicated."

The returns are briefly summarized in Table I. Some of our larger cities have been compelled by force of circumstances to construct large buildings. The experience of New York, as expressed by District Superintendent H. H. Wright, is instructive:

"Since January 1, 1930, we have opened four new senior high school buildings. Three of these accommodate about 3,700 each; the fourth accommodates 4,500.

"Theoretically, schools of this size are too large, but from a practical standpoint they are forced upon us. About eighteen years ago the Board of Education started out to build high-school buildings with a capacity of about 1,500 to 1,800. These proved to be impractical because, as soon as they were complet-

ed, we were forced to use them to house 3,000 to 3,500 pupils and were forced to run on double end-to-end sessions.

"We have found that the preparation of plans, selection of a site, and the securing of the approval of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment take just as long for a building to house 1,500 pupils as for a building that will house

TABLE I

City	Name of Person Making Report	Size of Last Three Senior High Schools	Pupil Capacity Recommended for New Senior High School
New York.....	H. H. Wright, district superintendent of high schools	{ 3,700 3,700 4,500	4,000
Philadelphia.....	Parke Schoch, associate superintendent of schools	{ 3,200 3,200 3,200	2,500-3,000
Los Angeles.....	Arthur Gould, assistant superintendent of schools	{ 2,000 2,000 2,000	2,000-4,000
St. Louis.....	W. J. S. Bryan, former assistant superintendent of schools	{ 1,800 2,400 2,400	2,000-4,000
Cincinnati.....	Edward D. Roberts, superintendent of schools	{ 1,500 1,800 2,500	1,500-2,500
Cleveland.....	Charles H. Lake, first assistant superintendent of schools	{ 2,500 2,500 3,500	2,500
Detroit.....	Edwin L. Miller, assistant superintendent of schools	{ 2,600 2,600 2,600	2,600
Evanston, Illinois.....	F. L. Bacon, principal, Evanston Township High School	2,000-3,000
Cicero, Illinois.....	H. V. Church, superintendent, J. Sterling Morton Schools	"Very large school"
Oak Park, Illinois.....	M. R. McDaniel, principal, Oak Park and River Forest Township High School	"Expanding high school to 5,000 capacity"
La Grange, Illinois.....	G. W. Willett, principal, Lyons Township High School and Junior College	3,000-4,000

4,500. In view of the fact that our high-school registration in the last eleven years has increased from 62,000 to 172,000 we have been forced to build large high-school buildings."

H. V. Church, superintendent of the J. Sterling Morton Schools, Cicero, Illinois, says:

"I am coming to believe that in large metropolitan areas a really better piece of work can be accomplished in a very large school, if it is properly administered, than can be done in a small school."

F. L. Bacon, principal of the Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois, states:

"May I say briefly that, as a result of my experience and observation, the high school with an enrolment between 2,000 and 3,000 seems to me to be the best size."

A letter from Parke Schoch, associate superintendent of schools in Philadelphia, reads in part:

"In view of the fact that we are committed to the comprehensive type of coeducational institution here, we think it necessary, in order to meet our program needs, to have our buildings accommodate approximately 3,000 pupils. There is a feeling in our department of superintendents today that the educational needs of our high-school program could be satisfactorily met in a building of a little smaller capacity, possibly somewhere between 2,500 and 2,800."

Edwin L. Miller, assistant superintendent of schools in Detroit, says:

"We have devised a high-school plan which seems to be more exactly fitted to what is needed than anything which we have hitherto adopted and have already in operation four high schools constructed in accordance therewith. The capacity of these schools is 2,600."

Charles H. Lake, first assistant superintendent of schools in Cleveland, states:

"It seems to me that the ideal size of high-school building for Cleveland is one with a capacity of 2,500. This seems to be an economical size to build, it guarantees use of the special rooms, gymnasiums, lunchrooms, auditoriums, etc., which are usually included in a modern building, and then a school of this size may be organized economically."

G. W. Willett, principal of the Lyons Township High School and Junior College, La Grange, Illinois, says:

"Personally, I believe it is poor policy in a large city with a growing population to build high schools with a capacity of less than 3,000 people. I, furthermore, have a feeling that in all probability a large city which has a concentrated population might do well to build for a capacity of 3,000 to 4,000."

Our experience with senior high school buildings in Chicago has been similar to that of the other large cities mentioned. Three senior high-school buildings were constructed in 1926—Fenger, Calumet, and Roosevelt—each with a capacity of 2,600 pupils. At the present time the membership at Fenger is 2,749; at Calumet, 4,339; and at Roosevelt, 5,140, although 600 of the Roosevelt pupils are housed in a branch building. The new Lane Technical High School, being erected on a thirty-acre site at the corner of Western Avenue and Addison Street, will have a pupil capacity of 5,200. That this capacity will be needed is indicated by the present enrolment of the Lane Technical High School of 5,931.

A standard or typical plan for senior high schools in Chicago has been prepared by the Bureau of Architecture in collaboration with the education department. It is called the "Steinmetz plan" and will accommodate 2,800 pupils. It provides accommodations for a complete program for a cosmopolitan high school, giving the various two-year and four-year courses offered to Chicago

senior high school pupils. Its facilities and equipment have been so balanced and adjusted that, with an enrolment of 2,800 pupils, all its facilities will be in use throughout the entire day.

An objection sometimes raised to large high schools is based on the idea that in them individual pupils will not receive as careful attention as is received in small schools. This statement is denied by those having experience as administrators in charge of schools of more than 3,000 pupils, as expressed by Mr. Church in his letter. The experience of these administrators indicates that with sufficient administrative service individual pupils receive as much personal attention and care as is given in smaller schools, and there is the advantage of the opportunity of taking part in a much wider variety of activities, both curricular and extra-curriculum, than is possible in a smaller school.

The present practice in the larger growing cities of the country in the construction of senior high schools is distinctly toward large buildings, accommodating from 2,000 to 5,000 pupils, with the average size ranging from 2,500 to 3,500. It is noticeable that the larger units are being built in the largest cities. Those having experience with the larger schools find that with sufficient administrative assistance individual pupils receive adequate attention and also that the needs of the individual pupil may be better met in large than in small schools, since the latter necessarily are more limited in the activities, both curricular and extra-curriculum, that are offered.

The dominant trend of both practice and opinion seems to be toward senior high schools accommodating large enrolments. This trend is in striking contrast with the dominant opinion held by friends of the small college that enrolments of institutions on the collegiate level should be typically limited to hundreds rather than to thousands. Although one may be moved to respect both points of view, it is hardly possible that both are correct and tenable. The temptation is to accept the opinion of those who have had experience with the larger enrolments. However, the whole issue is one that lends itself to investigation rather than to mere opinion. There appear to be tangible elements that should be subject to objective analysis. We may hope that some interested investigator will endeavor soon to displace judgment based on experience with conviction established in evidence scientifically derived.

A MILLION-DOLLAR FUND FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

The Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association has announced its plan for raising a fund of \$1,000,000 for educational research. The movement for establishing such a fund was launched in 1926 in a resolution that the research activities of

the department should be adequately staffed and financially supported for larger service. In 1927 the executive committee of the department authorized the president to appoint a committee to devise ways and means of financing educational research in a permanent way. This committee, now composed of Randall J. Condon, chairman, Frank W. Ballou, Lamont F. Hodge, and Charles H. Judd, is receiving funds after having made a careful study.

The plans are to seek no large single gifts to this fund. No paid solicitors will be employed. Contributions will be made by superintendents of schools and other friends of education who have no other motive than devotion to the public welfare. Although large gifts will be received if they are offered without conditions which will make them unacceptable, the committee recommends that the fund be raised on a democratic, nation-wide basis from the following sources.

1. Bequest insurance on the basis of the schedule especially prepared for the Committee on Financing Educational Research of the Department of Superintendence by the bequest-insurance department of the Equitable Life Assurance Society of the United States.
2. Contributions in cash.
3. Legacies specified in their wills by friends of education.
4. Life-memberships in the Department of Superintendence for those eligible to active membership upon the payment of a fee of \$100, which may be made in ten equal annual payments.

The bequest-insurance plan of subscription is an unusual feature. It was devised by the committee in accordance with the action of the Department of Superintendence at the Atlantic City convention last February. Arrangements were made with the Equitable Life Assurance Society whereby it will undertake, in co-operation with members of the department, to secure a substantial part of the total fund in the form of endowment insurance. Superintendents and others who wish to befriend education may take out a ten-year endowment policy naming the department as beneficiary. The policy may be written for any desired sum in units of \$250 each. At maturity or upon the death of the assured the principal sum will be paid to the educational-research fund. Annual premiums vary according to the age of the assured. Detailed information may be secured from the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington, D.C., or from local agents of the Equitable Life Assurance Society.

SOME RECENT CRITICISMS OF AMERICAN CONTEMPORARY LIFE AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR PUBLIC EDUCATION

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During the past few years a movement similar in purpose to that of the English Fabian Society of George Bernard Shaw, Graham Wallas, Sidney and Beatrice Webb, H. G. Wells, and others has been under way in America. While it is not organized as the original English group was, the object of the Fabians is implied—long taking of counsel. Reference is made to a small group of Americans who have definitely established themselves as critics of American contemporary life. The writer wishes to call attention to the analyses of these *frontier thinkers* because he believes that public education is the one great means of realizing their objective—long taking of counsel. In the educational sense, long taking of counsel means the preparation and guidance of the youth of America to do better the things they need to do in a dynamic contemporary civilization.

Besides making careful analyses of the opinions of these frontier thinkers for curriculum purposes, teachers and administrators should study the real implications of the criticisms as a phase of their professional growth. Leadership is in our hands, and an educational program for a changing society can only be worked out by trained persons dedicated to the ideal of research.

In passing, the writer wishes to register his protest against the narrowing influences of specialization in present educational research. In a recent study of the subjects chosen for research work (15: 328-49)^{*} the most frequently mentioned topics include: (1) ability grouping, (2) achievement tests, (3) arithmetic, (4) attendance, (5) child accounting, (6) classification and promotion, (7) general curriculum construction, (8) English, (9) examinations, (10)

^{*} The bold-face numbers in parentheses refer to the numbered bibliography at the end of this article; the numbers following the colon are page references.

extra-curriculum activities, (11) finance, (12) gifted children, (13) individual instruction, (14) individual differences, (15) intelligence testing, (16) the junior high school, (17) laws, (18) learning, (19) methods of teaching, (20) objectives, (21) pupil diagnosis and remedial work, (22) reading, (23) rural schools, (24) secondary education, (25) surveys, (26) teacher-training, and (27) vocational education and guidance. While the writer gives all deference to the tremendous amount of significant objective evidence, he believes that the collection of such evidence has been largely made an end in itself rather than a means to an end.

Beginning with Dewey in recent times, we find a few pioneer educators (Bobbitt, Briggs, Charters, Counts, Harap, Horn, Harold Rugg, and Snedden) calling for analysis of present-day life and the creation in miniature in the school of problems and activities of contemporary life. They point to this need in order that children today may comprehend not only the well-organized social heritage but also the implications of present-day needs. As noted earlier, it is the writer's conviction that the works of frontier thinkers such as are listed in the accompanying partial bibliography are sources of the new curriculum; this opinion does not deny that much detailed research into the sociological and psychological phases of contemporary life is required. Nevertheless, a preface to the philosophy of the new curriculum has been sketched in the works of the frontier thinkers.

In practice, the school has made some slight attempt to provide instruction in the major fields although such generally accepted objectives as those outlined in the seven cardinal principles (health, vocational training, citizenship, worthy home membership, wise use of leisure, command of the fundamental processes, and ethical training) are ideals decidedly undervalued in current time allotments. One study (18: 77) shows that the high-school pupil completes about three-fourths of his work in the traditional classical fields of formal English, history, mathematics, science, and foreign language. This investigation also shows that only about one-eighth of the total time is given to subject matter involving the four ideal objectives of health, vocational training, worthy home membership, and wise use of leisure and that there are gaps and deficiencies in the allot-

ment of time to the remaining three—command of the fundamental processes, citizenship, and ethical training.

COMPLICATIONS WHICH ARISE IN PROVIDING FOR UNDER-
STANDING OF CONTEMPORARY LIFE

The philosophy of the organization of the curriculum has been to teach logical, systematic summaries of race experiences in narrow compartments of subject matter. Discipline is important in such an organization. It has been assumed that the child will not only master this bird's-eye view of knowledge but will also apply needed items contributing to the efficient performance of activities in life outside the school. An indirect approach is the first complicating factor in providing for the understanding of contemporary life.

Up to date little attention has been given to what people do (the activities they need to perform) or to the problems they need to attack. The theory is too prevalent that a comprehensive grasp of the social heritage is alone sufficient. It has been assumed that life-activities and problems are largely in the field of "pick-up" education. Two criteria—relative values and where and how education takes place—have been almost entirely ignored. This lack of attention to proper utilization of life outside the school constitutes a second complicating factor in providing for the understanding of contemporary life.

The American experiment in colonization is a third complicating factor; it has resulted in a people of diverse nationalities, races, and cultures. Colonization worked fairly well as long as immigrants could be assimilated in an agrarian civilization. After the disappearance of free land in the late 1800's, the newcomer to America had to settle in the city and adjust himself to an industrial civilization. In the city he naturally colonized with people of his own nationality. The result was that in every urban center a "little Italy," a "little Poland," etc., were created. These colonies could not be readily Americanized for in such units the foreigner established his own stores, banks, churches, schools, and newspapers. A heterogeneous population makes the problem of interpreting present-day life a difficult one.

Up to the present, almost our entire energy has been absorbed in getting a living. The economic struggle has dominated American

life. While we have created high standards of living, yet the margin above the bare subsistence level is slight for most citizens. Furthermore, our standards of values are warped. Economic gain has been idealized at the expense of personality development and growth of the individual. Continued study of present-day life—a crucial obligation of a democratic citizenship—is almost entirely neglected. Moreover, specialization dominates American contemporary life. The worker in industry is but a cog in a machine. No longer does he obtain a complete view of economic life resulting from all-round participation or from the intimate contact of apprentice with master. In addition, co-operative governmental service is specialized. To Americans, government exists as a “service” agency. The result is that the average citizen feels no great urge to participate in political life. His narrow vocation (the object of which is to earn enough to live on) and his unrestricted leisure (in which to do as he pleases) are his goals. Thus, a shift in personal responsibility is a fourth complicating factor in the interpretation of present-day life.

THE IMPORT OF RECENT CRITICISM OF AMERICAN LIFE FOR CURRICULUM-MAKING

1. *Economic life.*—As suggested in the preceding section, economic life looms large for 95 per cent of the American people. Food, clothing, and shelter are still primary values. Furthermore, all Americans are expected to produce—to work.

What is and what should be the school program in the field of economic life? Curriculums for industrial and commercial arts emphasize the narrow goal of specific vocational training. In fact, the dominant feature of secondary and higher education today is an assumed vocational preparation. On both levels we find a variety of specialized vocational curriculums in spite of the fact that the organization of economic life today largely denies the necessity for specific vocational training, aside from certain professions which call for prolonged training and the preparation for which is chiefly on the college level. Eighty-five or 90 per cent of the present-day jobs, aside from professional work and managerial and executive positions, are of such nature that a worker can acquire the essential knowledges and skills in a few hours, days, or weeks on the job. Moreover, the writer doubts that vocational guidance can, for many

educational generations, predict the type of occupation, of the hundreds open today, for which a given pupil should prepare. As Snedden says, probably 90 to 95 per cent of specific vocational preparation is "pick-up" education (32: 377). The facts of industrial society today thus deny the need for specific vocational preparation except in special cases in certain communities. Probably the best example of a special case is commercial education for office workers in most communities. There is even a trend away from the high degree of professional training in some fields. It is the writer's understanding that one engineering school has abandoned specialized curriculums for various types of engineering—civil, mechanical, etc. *It proposes to train only general engineers.* What might be accomplished for such objectives as synthesis and articulation in public education by the adoption of this idea on the part of teacher-training institutions will be left to the reader's imagination.

In spite of the fact that specific vocational training is probably unnecessary in our industrial civilization, attention to economic life in the school program is crucial. There are two outstanding needs: (1) training for what Bobbitt calls the "unspecialized" practical activities (26: 177-208) and (2) training for what may be termed economic appreciation. It is not necessary to elaborate on the need for the first type of training. There are many general vocational activities, in the wide sense, that can be justified by such criteria as frequency, universality, and difficulty. The type of general practical arts contained in the concept of "home repair" is one illustration. In terms of the general annual wage (certainly not so much as \$150 a month for 95 per cent of all persons gainfully employed) and in terms of high standards of living (even though these imply warped economic values), there is need to teach everyone certain general practical arts. Training for economic appreciation is paramount in importance for several reasons. (When speaking of teaching appreciation of economic life, the writer does not use the term "appreciation" in the conventional sense of mere knowledge and feeling; rather, he thinks of it in the literal sense of teaching the pupil to place proper valuations on present-day economic life. Knowledge and feeling are, of course, involved; but they are not ends; they are means to an end. Appreciation is apparently an outcome, not an aim.) The child should be led to see the antecedents of contempo-

rary life and its advantages and disadvantages and to glimpse its trends. Let him read, listen, observe, participate in our present industrial order, not for narrow preparatory values, but for the more crucial value of securing an insight into economic life. Let him study a new type of history to see the losses and gains in the new mode of production (mass instead of individual). Let him study a new type of economics—the economics which will lead him to appraise the characteristics of the past as contrasted with the present industrial order, to appraise apprenticeship and craftsmanship versus machine-tending, the independent worker versus the interdependent worker, the former personal relations between worker and employer versus the relations between the worker and an impersonal corporation or “chain” production or “service” unit, a home industrial organization versus a factory organization. Let him study how goods are made, how distributed, and how advertised. Let him see what the machine has done for him and to him. Let him attempt to anticipate the future economic order with its dangers of unemployment, its strained attitudes resulting from lack of understanding between worker and employer, its terrific waste of resources, its monotony, its repetitive production, its warped values of wants, its “high-pressure” salesmanship. Let him contemplate an aristocracy ruling by virtue of, and controlled by, profits rather than an aristocracy led by a desire for service and humanitarianism. Let him realize the prostitution of the worker in mind, body, and soul and consider the future of such a worker who has the compensations of a democratized time surplus, high standards of living, and opportunities for personality development (1, 3-7, 13, 16, 22, 23).

2. *Home and family relationships.*—The home is still the perpetuating institution, notwithstanding the bulk of opinion which would have one believe that it is in danger of declining, if not of disappearing. From a time standpoint as well as from the standpoint of influence of vivid contacts,² the home is still an important

² A study in character education shows the relative importance of these contacts. Certain moral tests were given pupils and their parents, friends, club leaders, public-school teachers, and Sunday-school teachers. All groups except the public-school teachers made approximately the same median score; the median score of the public-school teachers was about 10 points higher than those of the other groups. The correlations between the scores of the child and the five other “influencing” groups are: (1) child

educative agency. Almost all the child's experience until he is of school age is secured in the home and family circle, much of it during the period of his school life; certainly much experience for those who marry or continue to live at home as adults is also obtained in the home. It is chiefly in the family group that the child acquires a general background of experience. Here are set his habits, dispositions, attitudes, tastes, and ideals, the character and level of which are probably determined largely by the standards of the adults in the family circle. Much of the experience of life pertaining to health, vocational training, worthy home membership, citizenship, the wise use of leisure time, and ethical training, in addition to many phases of the tool subjects, must always be taught in the home because the activities, problems, and situations which motivate such learning are inherent in family life. In spite of these facts, do we dare to leave to chance the acquisition of the learnings and culture which should result from the tremendous varieties of home activities? The writer doubts it very much.

For some decades instruction in home economics has been offered in the school. However, it receives slight attention, and the dominant emphasis is on sewing and cooking. Certain points stressed by recent critics of contemporary life (3, 7, 13, 23) are, apparently, almost entirely ignored. In the first place, the child needs to be taught the importance of the biological inheritance; it is not being safeguarded. The size of the family is restricted by the better educated and trained parents, whereas parents at the lower end of the cultural and economic scale do not tend to restrict the size of the family. While enormous advances have been made in child care and while child mortality has been greatly diminished (the trend being toward child-rearing rather than child-bearing), almost no attention is given to training in the psychology of parenthood. In the second place, the child needs to be taught a certain form of economics which for want of a better term may be called "consumer economics."

and parents, .545 \pm .023; (2) child and friends, .353 \pm .018; (3) child and club leaders, .137 \pm .043; (4) child and public-school teachers, .028 (no probable error given); and (5) child and Sunday-school teachers, .002 (no probable error given). See Hugh Harts-home, Mark A. May, and Others, "Testing the Knowledge of Right and Wrong," *Religious Education*, XXXI (October, 1926), 539-54.

Little attention has been paid by the economist to the consumer; the producer has been his chief concern. The result is the wealth of evidence from recent critics concerning the economic ignorance of the average buyer—and each person is a buyer in our present money society. In the third place, the effects of present-day living on the home should be studied. When the trend is decidedly to seek work and recreation away from the home, certain essential contributions of the home may be lost sight of. All the trends, good and bad in their effect, making for a different type of home life must be understood. The trend toward urbanization and apartment life, the trend toward decentralization in work and play away from the home, the trend toward a new type of family relationship—all these and others must be taken account of.

3. *The time surplus.*—"One of the outstanding defects in modern education is that it takes no account of leisure as a permanent factor in our life" (2: 483). Leisure, or a time surplus, has been democratized almost in our own generation by the shorter working day. Industrial engineers even predict that the present average of an eight-hour day may be cut in two by the increased efficiency in machine production. What is done to train pupils to use leisure wisely is seemingly of paramount importance (2, 3, 13, 14).

What we now do with leisure throws into relief the recreational problem. It cannot be gainsaid that the criteria of time, energy, and money are the standards for appraising any form of activity. One writer has given the following estimates: (1) The annual cost of recreation—pleasure motoring, vacations, moving pictures, light reading matter, radios, phonographs, entertainment, candy, tobacco, theaters, social clubs, dancing, sports, etc.—amounts to twenty-one billion dollars. (2) The persons reading the newspapers and tabloids number thirty-five million daily. (3) Fifty million persons each night listen to the radio and other musical instruments. (4) Fifty million persons are admitted to the moving pictures weekly. (5) Popular magazines are read by fifteen million persons monthly. (6) Sports events (baseball and football games, horse races, prize fights, etc.) are attended by seventy-five million persons a year (3: 332-53).

The character of recreation today should be noted. In the first

place, recreation is commercialized; we frankly turn to amusements provided for us by others, whose objective is profit. Inventions have remade recreation. In the second place, passivity is evident; we largely watch, or listen to, specialists perform. We do not create our own entertainment. In the third place, conformity is abetted; what the masses do, think, and are interested in tends to set the pattern for the individual. Recreation is organized for the crowd, and the individual is not equipped to provide his own recreation. In the fourth place, the emphasis is on quantity, not quality. We are more concerned with numbers involved, cost, and elaborateness than with the excellence of a product. Specialization caused the arts to break away from the common man, and today we lack training in standards of value. Some argue that this democratized leisure is a compensation for the monotonous, repetitive labor of the individual. The individual has been deprived of the creative act in work, but the time surplus leaves him free, presumably, to choose what he wishes to do in his leisure time. The activity analyses in the preceding paragraph show what he actually does, and the reader may judge how much he is *re-created* by the type of amusement indulged in.

What provision is made in school to teach the wise use of leisure? Little has been done except indirectly. It is true that literature is taught for presumed recreatory objectives. What is the "carry-over" to adult life of the ideals set up in literature classes? Music is taught in the schools. What type of music is appreciated in life? Symphonies and grand opera expressing the finest ideas and ideals in music must be subsidized by wealthy patrons. Art is taught in the school. Yet apply the test of art appreciation to American community life—to homes, business districts, and wholesale districts. Americans even desecrate beautiful nature in the national parks and playgrounds with shacks, "hot-dog" stands, and filling stations. Physical education is taught in the schools. Yet the forms do not carry over into adult life; inventions and luxurious standards of living are almost destroying the adult's ability to walk, much less to run and play. This fact is witnessed by the fields in which the science of medicine has made little headway—the nervous troubles and heart disease caused by overeating, by the hustle and bustle of American life, and by lack of exercise, or play.

The word "school," *schole* in Greek, literally means leisure. The only contributions to the literal objective in the modern school seemingly are found in the parallel philosophies of extra-curriculum activities, originated by the pupils, and of the child-centered school group, which is interested in children rather than in subject matter.

One of the great contributions to American education is the creation of a single educational ladder of opportunity. Within recent years the upward extension of this ladder in the secondary schools and colleges and the downward extension in kindergartens and pre-schools have been almost phenomenal. The most significant extension is still almost ignored, namely, adult education.

Consider briefly the importance of adult education. First, we live in a civilization so complicated that it is impossible for a child, or even a man or a woman in college, to learn everything that is socially valuable, even if all relatively non-useful material could be eliminated. Second, many activities and problems are of such a nature that they cannot be easily simplified for the schools. Even if all these activities and problems could be simplified for children, many of them by their nature make proper motivation impossible—for example, many of the problems of marriage and parenthood, health, adult citizenship, and recreation. Third, the long-time investment in child education cannot be ignored. At least \$2,000 of public money is invested in every child who is educated through the state university, not to mention the private costs to the parents. Many of the interests emphasized in formal education have only a slight carry-over into adult life. Many stagnate except in their narrow vocational interests. And yet we idealize a philosophy of growth in American education!

Americans are endowed, according to Thomas Jefferson, with certain inalienable rights, among which are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. Other rights have been given them, one of which is a time surplus; another, the opportunity for prolonged training in school under expert guidance; and still another, a standard of living permitting each person to continue his education throughout life. Continuous growth is the main educational consideration of the increasing time surplus, or leisure.

While we spend so much of our time as we do in defending our institutions against attack, it is well for us to remember that the main threat comes, and

must come, not from without but from within. A civilization that creates a leisure which it cannot rationally use may well be in greater danger of destruction than one that has no leisure at all. . . .

The great problem before us today is to create a civilization that does not degenerate under leisure. This can be done only by setting in operation forces making for a culture that recognizes, as no civilization since the fall of Rome has been required to do, that leisure is and must be a means and not an end; that its true value is measured by what we do with it—by whether it lifts us or lowers us in the great world of intangibles, the world not of material but of spiritual values [2: 492].

4. *Citizenship* (1, 3, 4, 10, 12, 22).—American history is largely the story of the rise of democracy. Pioneer community life inevitably makes for democracy because the basic hypothesis of democracy is that all are capable and pioneer life promotes the abilities involved in independent decision and freedom in making decisions. The ideal of universal suffrage has been realized. But with what results? In the first place, there is a survival of the Jacksonian theory that any American is fitted for any task. This hypothesis worked fairly well on the frontier because the capable were there, but social relations today are complicated, technical, and specialized. Government, which serves us, is our biggest business and thus requires the application of business principles. In the second place, we place chief reliance for government on a negative form of social control, legislation. We attempt to regulate all forms of behavior by laws. "For the fashion now is to mend the world by 'putting a stop' . . . to the evils and misdemeanors which mar the spectacle of social life and obviously need 'stopping' " (10: 52). In the third place, the complexity of modern life has thrown a tremendous burden on the institution called "government." In America this burden rests on the citizenry collectively and individually. We regulate everything and everyone by law under an accumulating police power which says, in effect, that anything can be regulated that affects the health, safety, or morals of the people. Evidence of this fact is found in the tremendous expansion of the idea of censorship in modern times. What we see and hear in the theater and moving-picture houses; what we hear over the radio; what we read (in certain cities, particularly); even, in some degree, what we are to believe—all are regulated.

What are the facts of applied citizenship on the adult level? The

gift of suffrage does not create the will to use it; not even a national election calls 50 per cent of the eligible voters to the polls. Law is not a panacea for controlling social behavior. Government service breaks down of its own weight, and we tolerate inefficiency and even corruption in politics. Why? Because the types of activities and problems that are unspecialized and those that are specialized are not clearly differentiated. The characteristics of social relations in contemporary life are not comprehended. The origins of social life have not been made clear to citizens (17); hence, their applications in present-day society are not evident (20).

What of the school curriculum in education for citizenship? The deficiencies will not be listed here (19, 21). It is the writer's conviction that all the advantages of the vicarious experiences to be found in new types of reading materials in the social studies² should be capitalized but with reference to definite standards or criteria. Rather than to give knowledge for its own sake or because of doubtful mind-training values, these studies should seek to throw light on definite present-day activities and problems brought forward by scientific research of frontier thinkers. A functional point of view is seemingly demanded. Mind-sets, dispositions, attitudes, and appreciations must be promoted, along with knowledge, in order to inculcate the development of abilities required of good citizens. The extra-curriculum activities also claim citizenship training as a primary value; hence, their contributions must be recognized. Not only is knowledge of what to do needed, but practice in doing in miniature situations involving citizenship is required. It is possible that pupil activities may promote proper skills, attitudes, appreciations, and ideals as well as knowledge concerning the characteristics of citizenship—loyalty, patriotism, service, justice, leadership, and "followership"; they may even promote democracy itself in its widest sense.

5. *Health*.—Primitive peoples prized health. Much of their training of youth was for physical development. Half the Greek curricu-

² For example, (a) "The Social Science Pamphlets" prepared by Harold Rugg and his associates in the Lincoln School of Teachers College. New York: Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926. (b) *Materials for the Study of Elementary Economics*. Edited by Leon Carroll Marshall, Chester Whitney Wright, and James Alfred Field. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1913. Pp. xviii+928.

lum was devoted to physical training. Health is obviously a primary value because it is fundamental for its own sake and also because it is essential to other major classes of activity. Nevertheless, health is undervalued in life. The perfect physical specimen is rare; he or she becomes an item of news when discovered. Even yet we recall the startling physical deficiencies unearthed when the "cream" of American manhood was called to arms a few years ago.

Progress has been made along several lines (3, 5, 8, 13). The science of medicine has contributed much information for the well-being of people, but the information has not been applied as extensively as it might have been. Apathy is as apparent in obedience to rules of health as in obedience to social laws, and modern life has developed some health problems not yet solved, notably, the increase in nervous diseases and in heart trouble.

The school program for promoting health is undervalued and unbalanced. It is a peculiar paradox that materials of primary value—for example, health, food, clothing, and shelter—receive but a slight fraction of the total time in school. The teaching of knowledge for its own sake is also evident in the work in hygiene. Physical deficiencies abound in every classroom—poor posture, defective teeth and eyesight, etc.—and little is done toward the teaching and supervision of diet, rest, and play outside of school.

In the school's physical-education program stress is generally laid on interscholastic competition, with the result that the innate tendencies of young children to physical activity disappear by adolescence and the majority become spectators at athletic contests. While there has been an enormous expansion of physical-education facilities (playgrounds, athletic fields, and gymnasiums), they are utilized for and by the talented. No more urgent problem exists than to promote better health in the American people, and health is now recognized as a mental, as well as a physical, problem.

6. *Religious and character development.*—Religion and fundamental life-values are seemingly synonymous terms. "Religion," broadly defined, is an inborn attempt to interpret one's environment. One is curious of things about him and is endowed with keen senses which lead him to adjust himself to his surroundings. Religion must be included in the total program of education. It is, so to speak, the

inclusive field which enables one to integrate his experiences (1, 3, 9, 11-13).

Religious development and character development of the individual are also synonymous. One tends to interpret his surroundings. As a result, he tends to explain things for himself. While his explanations may vary from those of others because of differing backgrounds of experience, the social influence is at work, and group standards—such as intra-group virtues of fair dealing, courtesy, honesty, friendliness and extra-group virtues of hostility, treachery, etc.—evolve. Pragmatic sanctions arise. Such ideals of morality acquire enormous survival value, and the schools attempt to teach the young “morality,” as it is termed.

The variety of the interpretations of our experiences and surroundings led to a separation of religion and the school. The actual synthesis was denied by organization.

The contemporary religious or moral problem today is still more complicated by the character of social organization. Conflicts in loyalties arise when one is pulled hither and thither by overlapping subordinate groups. What is moral in one situation may be immoral in another situation. Moreover, man today is less dependent upon himself and nature. Urbanization provides modes of living which the modern man accepts without adequate appreciation of what he enjoys. Modern education teaches one to accept contemporary ways of doing things. We are freed from superstition by scientific explanation of many phases of environment. Apparently, moral or character values are in a state of flux.

There is need for a reinterpretation of contemporary life. Just as the curriculum-maker should take into account the applications of the social heritage as summarized in the tool subjects and in the other major fields, so, too, he should integrate all race experience with present-day living and problems. The great need today is for synthesis of experience. Specialization led to detailed analysis. What we have taken apart and organized into small units has not been put together again in ways to permit the child to develop wholeness. “Any creative act—and any life—is the attempt to form some kind of whole from chaos. . . . The Whole must be *human behavior*. . . . Our need, then, . . . is for a method whereby our values can be naturalized into terms of actual living” (9: 240, 291).

SUMMARY

The real task of public education today is to equip children for what they need to do in life and throughout life. While some such classification of human activity as suggested in this brief interpretation of major fields of human activity is convenient, yet it is urgent that children be equipped to interpret life in the natural situations in which they find themselves. The race experience will be "service" material to be applied as contributory data to aid in participating efficiently and economically in life's activities and problems and in setting up character traits (standards or values) by which to govern behavior, individual and social.

It is the writer's conviction that the frontier thinkers should be used as the layman's committee on curriculum-making. The professional school man and woman know the educational implications to be made. Both groups must co-operate to interpret environment to the individual.

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WHO PERFORMS PERSONNEL DUTIES?

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An adequate personnel program requires special officers to deal with different types of personal problems of high-school girls: an expert in vocational guidance to help pupils choose, prepare for, enter, and succeed in, their vocations; a nurse and physician to deal with health problems; a visiting teacher to study special problems of maladjustment in the home; a psychologist to help individuals make the maximum academic progress possible for them; and a dean of girls to work with groups, as well as with individuals, and to facilitate and co-ordinate the work of the other specialists in the interest of individual pupils.

This article adds some further details to the study by Woellner and Reavis² of administrative practices in dealing with certain personnel problems in secondary schools. It deals specifically with the question: Who performs the following duties for girls in the high schools of the state of New York which have no officially appointed dean of girls?

1. Interviewing girls concerning—
 - a) Health problems
 - b) Study problems
 - c) Financial problems
 - d) Problems of maladjustment in the home
 - e) Misconduct
2. Supervising certain group activities
3. Supervising the sanitary condition and social aspects of the parts of the school building used by girls
4. Taking charge of emergency cases of illness

¹ Assistance in tabulating the data was given by Olivia Boezinger and Evelyn Lofland.

² Robert Woellner and W. C. Reavis, "Administrative Practices in Dealing with Personnel Problems in Secondary Schools," *School Review*, XXXVII (March, 1929), 176-86.

5. Taking responsibility for a positive health program
6. Helping girls in making academic adjustments
7. Assisting in vocational guidance and placement
8. Making contacts with parents

The data for this study were obtained from principals of high schools in the state of New York who had previously reported that their schools had no officially appointed dean of girls.¹ In October, 1928, questionnaires were sent to 174 principals, of whom 115, or 66 per cent, replied. However, the number of persons shown in Tables I-V to be responsible for each duty listed do not total 115 because persons mentioned only once or twice are not included in the tables and because several persons frequently co-operate in performing a single duty.

Woellner and Reavis² in their study of 522 representative high schools found that in 50.2 per cent of the schools the dean of girls is responsible for the guidance work for girls; in 56.1 per cent, the principal; in 25.5 per cent, the assistant principal; and in 15.7 per cent, some other person. In the state of New York the percentage of schools reporting an officially appointed dean of girls is 32,³ a lower percentage than that reported by Woellner and Reavis. Table I shows that in the schools in New York which have no dean of girls the principal is the person most frequently responsible for offering guidance concerning problems of study, vocations, and misconduct.⁴ The table shows that the rôle of the home-room teacher is also important. The nurse is the person primarily responsible for guidance in problems of personal health, as is shown by Table I, although the home-room teacher and other teachers, especially teachers of physical education, attempt to share this responsibility.

Paradoxical as it may sound, the supervision of group activities is an important phase of the work with individuals because group activities aid individuals in making important social adjustments.

¹ Sarah M. Sturtevant and Ruth Strang, *A Personnel Study of Deans of Girls in High School*, p. 114. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 393. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929.

² Robert Woellner and W. C. Reavis, *op. cit.*, p. 184.

³ Sarah M. Sturtevant and Ruth Strang, *op. cit.*, p. 114.

⁴ Misconduct is considered from the standpoint of the individual's character development and is accordingly classified as a counseling problem.

TABLE I
PERSONS IN 115 HIGH SCHOOLS IN NEW YORK WHO ARE RESPONSIBLE FOR COUNSELING
INDIVIDUAL GIRLS WITH REGARD TO PERSONAL PROBLEMS

PERSON RESPONSIBLE	HEALTH PROBLEMS		STUDY PROBLEMS		FINANCIAL PROBLEMS		VOCATIONAL PROBLEMS		PROBLEMS OF MALADJUSTMENT IN HOME		MISCONDUCT	
	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Principal.....	3	3	45	39	18	16	55	48	19	17	54	47
Vice-principal.....	1	1	2	2	2	2	5	4	2	2	5	4
Home-room teacher.....	11	10	39	34	24	21	20	17	14	12	21	18
Faculty adviser.....	2	2	11	10	6	5	13	11	5	4	7	6
Nurse.....	77	67	4	4	1	1	0	0	21	18	7	6
Teachers.....	30	26	32	28	7	6	15	13	14	12	28	24
Teacher of physical education.....	14	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Health teacher.....	4	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
No one.....	3	3	0	0	47	41	9	8	36	31	0	0

In the 115 schools studied the teachers—some of whom are faculty advisers; some, home-room teachers; and some, teachers of physical education—direct the social life, clubs, and extra-curriculum activities. Occasionally principals in schools enrolling less than five hundred pupils report that they have a share in this phase of school life for girls; in the schools enrolling more than five hundred pupils the principals rarely share this duty.

In schools in which attempts are made to help the Freshman girls adjust themselves to high-school life, the principal performs this duty in twenty-three cases; the home-room teacher, in fifteen cases; the faculty adviser, in nineteen cases; and other teachers, in fourteen

TABLE II
PERSONS IN 115 HIGH SCHOOLS IN NEW YORK WHO ARE RESPONSIBLE
FOR SUPERVISION OF SANITARY CONDITION AND SOCIAL
ASPECTS OF THE SCHOOL BUILDING

PERSON RESPONSIBLE	SANITARY CONDITION		SOCIAL ASPECTS	
	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Principal.....	17	15	36	31
Vice-principal.....	5	4	5	4
Nurse.....	27	23	9	8
Teachers.....	39	34	51	44
Janitor or matron..	34	30	6	5

cases. Thirty-two principals report that no one attempts to give this type of guidance to Freshman girls.

Making the school building a healthful place is a preventive, rather than a remedial, aspect of work with individuals. Table II shows the persons who are responsible for the sanitary condition and social aspects of the school building. In the majority of the schools the nurse, teachers, and janitor or matron supervise the sanitary condition of the school toilets, lockers, and other parts of the building used by girls. Only in the smaller schools does the principal assume any responsibility in this matter. In the supervision of the social aspects of the building (the prevention of loitering in the building, control of conduct in the halls and cafeterias, and the like), the principal reports responsibility in thirty-six cases, but in the majority of cases the teachers perform such duties.

In the high schools studied the supervision of girls living away from home is not a problem. In some other sections of the state where there are consolidated schools, the housing of girls is a problem which has not been adequately solved.

Emergency cases of illness are usually handled by the nurse. If no nurse is available, the teachers, especially the teachers of physical education, assume responsibility. In six of the schools of medium size a physician is available, and in six other schools cases of illness are referred to the secretary.

The nurse and teachers of physical education are most often responsible for a positive health program in schools in which such a

TABLE III

PERSONS IN 115 HIGH SCHOOLS IN NEW YORK WHO ARE RESPONSIBLE
FOR GIVING ASSISTANCE IN MAKING ACADEMIC ADJUSTMENTS

PERSON RESPONSIBLE	GIVING EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE		MAKING PROGRAMS		CLASSIFYING GIRLS ACCORDING TO THEIR ABILITY	
	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Principal	84	73	66	57	45	39
Vice-principal	5	4	4	4	2	2
Home-room teacher	24	21	10	9	4	4
Faculty adviser	14	12	8	7	9	8
Teachers	27	23	15	13	24	21

program is carried on. Less frequently other teachers, the physician, and the principal are concerned with this constructive aspect of the care of the health of pupils. Sometimes the nurse and the teacher of physical education or the nurse and the principal work together on this problem.

Only three phases of educational guidance were included in the questionnaire. Table III shows that the principal gives these three types of guidance more often than any other person in the school. It is interesting to learn that apparently no psychologists are employed in these schools and that in thirty-eight cases the principal admits that no one is qualified to classify pupils according to their ability.

In schools enrolling less than a thousand pupils, vocational guid-

ance, if given at all, is probably of an incidental, inexpert nature. Table IV shows that many principals report that no one does this work in their schools. Only one vocational-guidance director is mentioned, but in thirteen schools directors of part-time work are employed. As in other phases of personnel work in the school, the responsibility, when no expert is employed, falls primarily on the principal and teachers, who are not qualified for these specialized duties and do not have the time to perform them. In one school the commercial department gives information about vocations; in another, a "guidance committee"; and in a third, the librarian.

TABLE IV
PERSONS IN 115 HIGH SCHOOLS IN NEW YORK WHO ARE RESPONSIBLE
FOR VARIOUS PHASES OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND PLACEMENT

PERSON RESPONSIBLE	INTERVIEWS WITH INDIVIDUALS		SECURING PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT		SECURING EM- PLOYMENT AFTER GRADUATION		GIVING IN- FORMATION ABOUT VOCATIONS	
	Number of Schools	Percent- age of Schools	Number of Schools	Percent- age of Schools	Number of Schools	Percent- age of Schools	Number of Schools	Percent- age of Schools
Principal.....	55	48	34	30	47	41	51	44
Vice-principal...	5	4	2	2	2	2	2	2
Home-room teacher.....	20	17	1	1	0	0	6	5
Faculty adviser..	13	11	1	1	1	1	9	8
Teachers.....	15	13	9	8	24	21	28	24
Secretary.....	0	0	6	5	2	2	6	5
Director of part- time work....	1	1	13	11	3	3	4	4
No one.....	9	8	44	38	26	23	19	17

Personnel work with pupils necessarily reaches back to the home. Table V shows the persons who make contacts with parents through interviews at school, visits to homes, or meetings of the parent-teachers' associations. Thirty-four principals report that no one visits the homes of the pupils, and forty-five report that there are no parent-teachers' associations in their schools. In two schools visiting teachers are responsible for visiting the pupils' homes.

The frequency with which various persons in the 115 schools studied are responsible for the twenty-two personnel duties listed in the questionnaire is shown in Table VI. The principal, according to these reports, is the primary personnel officer in schools having no

dean of girls or other specialist in different phases of work with individual girls. His responsibilities along this line decrease as the size

TABLE V
PERSONS IN 115 HIGH SCHOOLS IN NEW YORK WHO ARE RESPONSIBLE
FOR MAKING CONTACTS WITH PARENTS

PERSON RESPONSIBLE	INTERVIEWS WITH PARENTS		VISITS TO HOMES		PARENT-TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS	
	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Principal.....	91	79	11	10	12	10
Vice-principal.....	19	17	1	1	0	0
Home-room teacher.....	4	4	4	4	1	1
Faculty adviser.....	10	9	2	2	0	0
Nurse.....	10	9	19	17	2	2
Teachers.....	32	28	12	10	6	5
Parents.....					23	20

TABLE VI
FREQUENCY WITH WHICH VARIOUS PERSONS PERFORM PERSONNEL
DUTIES IN 115 SCHOOLS IN NEW YORK

PERSON PERFORMING DUTIES	SCHOOLS WITH ENROLMENTS OF 99-250 (45 SCHOOLS)		SCHOOLS WITH ENROLMENTS OF 251-500 (40 SCHOOLS)		SCHOOLS WITH ENROLMENTS OF 501-1,000 (14 SCHOOLS)		SCHOOLS WITH ENROLMENTS OF MORE THAN 1,000 (16 SCHOOLS)		ALL SCHOOLS (115)	
	Frequency of Mention	Average per School	Frequency of Mention	Average per School	Frequency of Mention	Average per School	Frequency of Mention	Average per School	Frequency of Mention	Average per School
Principal.....	423	9.4	338	8.5	122	8.7	89	5.6	972	8.5
Teachers.....	176	3.9	189	4.7	64	4.6	29	1.8	458	4.0
Nurse.....	113	2.5	47	1.2	35	2.5	29	1.8	224	1.9
Home-room teacher.....	103	2.3	102	2.6	30	2.1	34	2.1	269	2.3
Faculty adviser.....	44	1.0	70	1.8	16	1.1	37	2.3	167	1.5
Secretary.....	26	0.6	16	0.4	5	0.4	15	0.9	62	0.5
Vice-principal.....	24	0.5	15	0.4	33	2.4	14	0.9	86	0.7
Janitor.....	16	0.4	15	0.4	5	0.4	1	0.1	37	0.3
Teacher of physical education.....	15	0.3	19	0.5	11	0.8	26	1.6	71	0.6
Superintendent.....	10	0.2	38	1.0	9	0.6	0	0.0	57	0.5
Physician.....	0	0.0	19	0.5	7	0.5	2	0.1	28	0.2
No one.....	241	5.4	183	4.6	54	3.9	45	2.8	523	4.5

of the school increases. The teachers, in the rôle of classroom teacher, home-room teacher, or faculty adviser, probably play an even more important part in advisory work than is indicated in Table VI.

Co-operation between members of the faculty in performing many of these duties is indicated. In fifty-five cases the principal

and home-room teacher are specifically mentioned in connection with a particular duty; in ninety-three cases, the principal and the classroom teacher; and in eleven cases, the principal and the nurse. Other combinations which occasionally occur are principal and secretary, nurse and teacher of physical education, nurse and doctor, principal and superintendent, principal and vice-principal, principal and faculty adviser, and home-room teacher and classroom teachers. Deam¹ describes in detail an advisory system which illustrates the principle of co-operation in performing some of the personnel duties in the school.

There seem to be two methods of handling the problem of personnel work in schools employing no specialist: (1) the division of responsibility among a number of people and (2) the delegation of specific duties to individual members of the faculty. The first plan is illustrated by the reply made by one principal to the question, "Who is responsible for particular duties?" "All of us," is his answer. The second plan is illustrated in schools which have an attendance teacher, whose duty it is to record daily attendance and admit pupils who have been absent; a "study-hall coach," who deals with problems of study; a director of part-time work, who secures employment for girls who must partially support themselves while in high school; a visiting teacher, who handles problems of maladjustment in the home; a loan committee, who administer loans and scholarships; a health teacher, who is responsible for a positive health program; and many other teachers who are assigned to special activities.

However, even in small schools there seems to be a need for someone who will provide correlation among the various aspects of the educational process in the interest of the pupil as an individual. Thirty principals say that they think such a member of the faculty is desirable. The following comment is typical: "This plan provides skilled service in many instances where we employ home-room teachers more or less unskilled." Three principals are opposed to the employment of a specialist of this kind, and five are undecided. The chief objections are the expense of employing a person solely for per-

¹ Thomas M. Deam, "Teacher Co-operation in the Administration of the High School," *School Review*, XXXIII (February, 1925), 126-30.

sonnel work, especially in small schools, and the difficulty of obtaining a person with the necessary personal qualifications and training.

These data suggest (1) the need of specialists to give expert help in the various phases of personnel work in high schools and (2), until school boards can be persuaded to employ vocational-guidance experts, deans of boys and deans of girls, directors of health education, and other specialists, the need of principals and teachers who have specific training in the phases of work with individuals which they may be called on to perform under present conditions. This special training will enable them to perform more effectively than they otherwise would the duties which the exigencies of the present situation demand of them. However, "the many-sided character of the principal's position makes it imperative"¹ that he be relieved of many of the duties which, this study shows, he now performs.

¹ Robert Woellner and W. C. Reavis, *op. cit.*, p. 176.

THE INTELLIGENCE FACTOR IN FOREIGN- LANGUAGE ACHIEVEMENT

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Recent investigations of the correlation between intelligence and success in foreign-language study have yielded somewhat optimistic conclusions concerning the value of the intelligence quotient in predicting achievement. That this optimism is not wholly justified is evident from the results of the investigation reported in this article, which is probably the most comprehensive study of the intelligence factor in foreign-language achievement thus far reported. The materials of the study, which was made during the second semester of the school year 1927-28, are the intelligence quotients of 1,002 pupils, derived from their performance on the Terman Group Test of Mental Ability, Forms A and B, and certain of their marks in Spanish. The pupils, who were enrolled in eighteen junior and senior high schools in San Diego and Los Angeles, had studied Spanish from one to six semesters. The marks in Spanish for the last two semesters of study were averaged for all except beginning pupils. These averages were translated into point-score equivalents on the basis of their standard-deviation distances on the linear scale of the normal frequency curve. Table I presents by semester and sex the correlations obtained by the Pearson product-moment method for each of the six semesters and for the total number of boys and girls.

The exact significance of the correlations for the boys and the girls in the beginning semester obviously depends on the criterion of evaluation employed. If they are interpreted in terms of the definitions of "correlation" given by Rugg, McCall, and Wood,¹ the cor-

¹ a) Harold Rugg, *A Primer of Graphics and Statistics for Teachers*, p. 97. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1925.

b) William A. McCall, *How To Measure in Education*, pp. 392-95. New York: Macmillan Co., 1922.

c) Ben D. Wood, *Measurement in Higher Education*, p. 73. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1923.

relations are fairly high for the girls and moderately substantial for the boys and indicate that the relation between intelligence quotients yielded by group tests and marks received in a foreign language during the first semester is sufficiently high to justify the use of intelligence quotients in predicting success in Spanish. This observation, however, must obviously be qualified by the limitations of the data on which it is based. It must be remembered that from the statistical point of view correlations between intelligence quotients and teach-

TABLE I
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS OF 1,002 HIGH-SCHOOL
PUPILS AND THEIR GRADE-POINT AVERAGES IN SPANISH
FOR EACH OF SIX SEMESTERS OF STUDY

SEMESTER	BOYS				GIRLS			
	Number of Cases	Correlation	Probable Error	Coefficient of Alienation*	Number of Cases	Correlation	Probable Error	Coefficient of Alienation*
1.	77	.4255	.0620	.905	72	.5310	.0563	.848
2.	120	.2109	.0559	.978	137	.4079	.0478	.913
3.	79	.1503	.0742	.989	108	.3197	.0578	.947
4.	78	.1113	.0755	.994	123	.3842	.0516	.923
5.	47	.0315	.0973	.999	60	.3579	.0758	.934
6.	24	.0892	.1366	.996	33	.1429	.1141	.990
Total†.	434	.2299	.0307	.973	568	.3911	.0238	.920

* For a definition of this term see C. W. Odell, *Educational Statistics*, p. 231. New York: Century Co., 1925.

† The records of nine boys and thirty-five girls whose rankings are not indicated for the separate semesters are included in the totals and their respective coefficients of correlation.

ers' marks, even when relatively high, are undesirable for use in prognosis and guidance. To be completely satisfactory for this purpose, the correlations should be derived from more valid and more reliable measures of achievement, such as scores on objective standardized tests, and should be obtained under conditions permitting at least approximate duplications of responses and results. The correlations of .4255 and .5310, although indicating that a significant relation exists, also mean that superior intelligence does not guarantee high scholarship and that pupils with comparatively low intelligence quotients may achieve high marks. Thus, the relation between intelligence and success in Spanish in the first semester holds when groups of pupils are compared but may not apply when individual

cases are considered. Finally, it must be observed that the bases for prediction in the case of the boys are even less safe than in the case of the girls, for the perceptibly lower correlations yielded for the former, when considered in the light of preceding investigations,¹ distinctly show that the boys are much less likely to work up to capacity in Spanish than are the girls.

The correlations between intelligence quotients and grade-point averages in the second semester are appreciably lower for both boys and girls than are the correlations yielded in the first semester. No satisfactory explanation for this decrease can be offered without reference to the nature of the distributions, which showed a significant rise in the median intelligence level for both sexes in the second semester. Data not given in this article indicate that the lowest correlation is found in the case of the boys who showed the most marked rise in average intelligence. This fact occasions the observation, already made by other investigators,² that the brighter pupils are less disposed to work up to capacity than are the mediocre pupils and that, in view of the consistent rise of the intelligence level from term to term, a table or graph summarizing the correlations between scores of mental ability and semester marks in Spanish should reveal a lower degree of relationship with each succeeding year. That a certain amount of diminution actually takes place—as is shown, except in the case of two correlations, by the general trend of the correlations in the table, augurs well for the validity of the hypothesis. A second interpretation is, of course, that the foundation acquired in the work of the beginning semester becomes in the second term as significant in conditioning success as mental ability. However, the decreasing correlations are probably more accurately explained by the fact that there is a gradual elimination of the mentally inferior pupils. This elimination tends to shorten the base lines of the dis-

¹ Walter Vincent Kaulfers, "Effect of the IQ on the Grades of One Thousand Students of Foreign Languages," *School and Society*, XXX (August 3, 1929), 163-64.

² a) Gustave A. Feingold, "Mental Analysis of High School Failures," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, IX (January, 1923), 24-38.

b) Benj. B. James, "Correlations of Mental Tests and Scholarship," *School and Society*, VII (February 23, 1918), 238-39.

c) Aubrey A. Douglass, *Secondary Education*, p. 288. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1927.

tributions and thus to lower the statistical expressions of the correlations. Whatever the explanation, the fact remains that prognosis on the basis of the correlations is scarcely 2.2 per cent better than a random guess for the boys and only 8.7 per cent better than a chance guess for the girls. The conclusion thus becomes inescapable that factors other than intelligence condition the quality of scholarship in Spanish.

The tendency revealed in the second semester manifests itself as a definite trend in the third. The negligible value of the correlations for this semester is evident from the fact that the correlation for the boys assures valid prediction in less than 51 per cent of the cases, while that for the girls insures accuracy for only 52.7 per cent. These percentages are practically useless, since a random guess is almost as certain of accuracy.

At this point it should be noted, however, that prognosis as to a pupil's success in the third semester of Spanish is by no means as important as prediction of his success in the first semester because the greatest elimination occurs in the beginning term. Thus, the correlations for the second year do not have as great practical significance in guidance as those obtained for the first semester. Their chief value lies in the revelation of certain trends in the relation between mental ability and achievement in Spanish at successive stages of advancement. For the most part, the trend distinctly shows a decreasing degree of relationship. The fact that the average intelligence of the boys in the third semester was perceptibly inferior, and that of the girls only slightly superior, to their respective levels of ability in the third semester seems to indicate that the lower correlations cannot be said to be caused by the indisposition of the brighter pupils to work up to capacity but are to be attributed to the constantly increasing importance of a command of the language as a factor conditioning success. The selective factor in pupil elimination operates only incidentally.

The situation in the fourth semester is essentially the same as in the third, except that there was a higher mean and median level of intelligence for both sexes. The fact that there was a higher selection in the case of the boys while the correlation is lower tends to substantiate the conclusion that lack of interest and application is the

chief cause of failure among boys. The correlation of .1113 yielded by the group of boys is even lower than the correlation for the preceding term and tends to show the inadvisability of guiding boys beyond the first year on the basis of intelligence ratings. In the case of the girls the correlation of .3842 is somewhat higher than that obtained for the third semester, but the gain is hardly sufficient to increase the certainty of prediction for the sex. It is of interest chiefly because it indicates that girls, in general, achieve more consistently in accordance with their ability than do boys and that intelligence as a factor in success is more significant among girls than among boys.

The same consistency and constancy of achievement in the case of the girls is indicated by the correlation of .3579 in the fifth semester. Although this value of the coefficient does not promise certainty of prediction in more than 53.3 per cent of the cases, it is nevertheless in marked contrast to the correlation of .0315 obtained for the boys. The correlation for the latter is in perfect agreement with the theory developed in the preceding paragraphs. In view of the observed failure of the male pupils to work up to capacity, it was to be expected that the weak foundation which they laid in the fundamentals of Spanish during the introductory years would eventually prove a greater handicap to successful achievement than deficiencies in native intelligence and that this outcome would definitely manifest itself in a constantly decreasing correlation from year to year.

The most significant finding for the sixth semester is the drop in the degree of correlation registered by the girls. In view of the small number of cases involved, this circumstance may be explained on the basis that the sampling of ability is inadequate and atypical. In so far as this drop represents a fundamental condition, it is undoubtedly to be interpreted in terms of the observations made for the boys in the first five semesters, namely, the increasing importance of previous preparation, the indisposition of the brighter pupils to do thorough work, and the shortening of the base lines of the distributions as a result of the selective elimination of the pupils of inferior intelligence.

The question immediately arises: Which of the several correlations recorded may be employed most effectively in guiding pupils in

deciding whether to choose or to avoid the study of languages? The first thought is that the correlations for the total number of boys and girls would be of greatest significance in view of the larger number of cases on which they are based. Attention is, therefore, called to the observation already made that it is not prognosis for the second, third, or fourth year of Spanish, or for all semesters of study combined, which is of paramount importance in guidance but that the reliability of predictions for the beginning semester holds the first importance. Having once completed satisfactorily the work of the first semester, the pupil rarely needs redirection on the basis of mental ability, for the low correlations obtained in the upper years show that factors other than intelligence primarily condition achievement in Spanish after the introductory stage. For this reason, if any correlations are to be adopted, the correlations for the first semester should be those chosen. This observation and the deductions drawn from the correlations for the several semesters seem to warrant the following conclusions.

1. In the case of both sexes relatively low positive correlations exist between intelligence quotients and teachers' marks in Spanish.
2. Achievement in Spanish is, in large measure, influenced by factors other than intelligence.
3. Boys show less inclination to work up to capacity in Spanish than do girls—a fact indicating a possible inferiority of interest in the subject.
4. As the pupils progress, previous preparation in Spanish becomes as significant as mental ability in conditioning success.
5. The brighter pupils tend to achieve less in proportion to their capacity than do the mediocre pupils.
6. Prognosis on the basis of intelligence quotients is highly susceptible to error when individual pupils are involved.
7. The correlations for both sexes would be higher if pupils generally were disposed to work up to capacity.
8. Prognosis on the basis of intelligence is, in general, more certain for girls studying Spanish than it is for boys.
9. The highest correlations which can be safely used as prognostic bases for the guidance of pupils considering the study of language do not exceed .4255 and .5310 for boys and girls, respectively.

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SUMMER SESSIONS IN HIGH SCHOOLS

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The data compiled in this investigation came from three sources: (1) public-school superintendents and high-school principals, (2) state departments of education, and (3) state universities. The investigation was made by means of a questionnaire sent out in January, 1930. The report is divided into three parts based on the information secured from the three sources mentioned.

INFORMATION FURNISHED BY SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS AND HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

The first section of the report is based on information furnished by school superintendents and high-school principals. An inquiry was sent to ninety-six schools. Eighty-two schools replied, forty-two of which conduct summer sessions in the high schools. The cities in which these forty-two schools are located are as follows:

Douglas, Arizona	Trinidad, Colorado
Phoenix, Arizona	Winnetka, Illinois
Tucson, Arizona	Ames, Iowa
Fort Smith, Arkansas	Burlington, Iowa
Hot Springs, Arkansas	Council Bluffs, Iowa
Little Rock, Arkansas	Des Moines, Iowa
Bakersfield, California	Iowa City, Iowa
Glendale, California	Ottumwa, Iowa
Venice, California	Sioux City, Iowa
Boulder, Colorado	Atchison, Kansas
Colorado Springs, Colorado	Emporia, Kansas
Denver, Colorado (East High School)	Wichita, Kansas
Fort Morgan, Colorado	Lincoln, Nebraska (University High School)
Grand Junction, Colorado	Omaha, Nebraska (Central High School)
Gunnison, Colorado	Oklahoma City, Oklahoma
Pueblo, Colorado (Centennial High School and Central High School)	Tulsa, Oklahoma
Rocky Ford, Colorado	Amarillo, Texas

Dallas, Texas
 El Paso, Texas
 Fort Worth, Texas
 Galveston, Texas

Houston, Texas
 Salt Lake City, Utah
 Cheyenne, Wyoming

The length of summer sessions.—Table I shows the number of weeks in the summer sessions of the forty-two high schools reporting. The minimum length of session is six weeks; the maximum, ten

TABLE I
 NUMBER OF WEEKS IN SUMMER SESSIONS IN FORTY-TWO HIGH SCHOOLS

Number of Weeks	Number of Schools
6.....	14
7.....	2
8.....	18
9.....	6
10.....	2
Total.....	42

weeks; and the average, 7.5 weeks. Of the fourteen schools conducting sessions of six weeks, six have a six-day week, or a session of thirty-six days. These six schools, therefore, may be considered in the group of schools conducting sessions of seven weeks.

TABLE II
 NUMBER OF CLASS PERIODS IN THE DAY IN SUMMER SESSIONS IN THIRTY-ONE HIGH SCHOOLS

Number of Periods	Number of Schools
2.....	5
3.....	4
4.....	12
5.....	7
6.....	3
Total.....	31

Number of class periods in the day and number of days in the school week.—Table II shows the number of class periods in the school day in summer sessions in thirty-one high schools. The minimum number of class periods is two, the maximum is six, and the average is four.

Length of the class periods and hours during which sessions are held.—Table III shows the length of the class periods in the summer ses-

sions in thirty-six high schools. The shortest period is 45 minutes in length; the longest, 120 minutes; and the average, 75 minutes. Of the ten schools having sixty-minute periods, one school has a ten-week session; four have nine-week sessions; three, eight-week sessions; and two, six-week sessions. All three schools having sixty-five-minute periods have eight-week sessions. Of the seven schools having periods of 120 minutes, three schools have sessions of eight or nine weeks.

The prevailing practice is to conduct a single morning session, closing between 12:15 and 1:00 P.M.

TABLE III

NUMBER OF MINUTES IN CLASS PERIODS IN SUMMER SESSIONS IN THIRTY-SIX HIGH SCHOOLS

Number of Minutes	Number of Schools
45.....	6
50.....	1
55.....	1
60.....	10
65.....	3
75.....	1
80.....	2
90.....	4
100.....	1
120.....	7
Total.....	36

Pupils who take summer work.—In nearly all schools the work is open either to pupils who are failing or to those who wish to take advanced work. In a good many cases in which pupils take new work, their purpose in doing so is to make up deficiencies that have come about through transferring from one school to another or through failure at some point in their courses, not necessarily in the year preceding the summer session.

Amount of credit that may be earned in a single summer session.—The standards of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, to which most of the schools studied conform, provide that a pupil may earn a unit by carrying an academic subject (English, science, mathematics, etc.) for one school year or by doing an equivalent amount of work. Twenty-one schools report

that pupils can earn only one unit of credit in one summer session; eight schools allow the pupils to earn one and one-half units; three schools allow a maximum of two units; and two schools allow only one-half unit.

In many cases in which schools indicate that a pupil may do one unit of work during a summer session, the writer believes that they mean that he may carry two half-year courses, that is, the equivalent of one unit of credit. While the data with regard to this matter are not definite, it is thought that, in the main, schools do not advise that a pupil take a year's work in a subject in one session.

Place of the summer session in the school system.—In nearly all cases the report is that the summer session is an integral part of the school system. However, it is thought that the officers reporting mean that the summer session is conducted under the authority of the board of education but not that the summer session comprises one quarter in a four-quarter year or that the school district assumes the expense of the summer school. Only twelve of the forty-two schools report that the district pays all expenses.

Charges for tuition.—Tuition is charged regularly in twenty-eight of the forty-two schools reporting. Eleven schools report that no tuition is charged, and three schools report that tuition is charged only for pupils living outside the district. The rate of tuition varies from \$5 to \$15 for a course, the prevailing rate being \$10. Twelve schools indicate that no reduction is made for two or more courses.

Appointment and salaries of teachers and principals.—In sixteen schools summer-school teachers are appointed by the superintendent or by the superintendent and the board of education. In fifteen schools appointments are made by the principal, by the superintendent and the principal, or by the principal with the approval of the superintendent.

The salaries for teachers vary widely, ranging from \$5 a day to \$450 for ten weeks, with an average of about \$6.50 a day. In nine schools the principal is employed for the year and receives no extra compensation for the summer term. In schools in which extra compensation is paid to the principal, the rate varies widely. One city pays \$225 for a nine-week term, one city pays \$500 for a ten-week term, one city pays \$450 for an eight-week term, and one city pays \$7.50 a day for an eight-week term.

The success of summer-school pupils.—In nearly all cases the opinion of the officers reporting is that the efficiency of summer-school pupils in their later work justifies the summer schools. The validity of the data on which they base their judgment has not been determined.

INFORMATION FURNISHED BY STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

The information given in this section of the report is based on data supplied by state departments of education in response to certain definite questions.

Credit for summer work.—The first question was, "Do you give credit for high-school summer work?" Nearly all the replies from state departments of education answering this question are in the affirmative. One state gives credit only for work which is taken to make up deficiencies. A few state departments say that the question of giving credit for summer-school work has not arisen because there are few summer sessions in the high schools in their states.

There is hardly a doubt that work done under reasonable conditions in summer sessions is generally accepted. The replies of all state departments of education indicate a desire to co-operate with the high schools in securing reasonable conditions so that the work done in the short sessions shall be of the proper quantity and quality. Several state officials expressed their conviction that in many cases the standards as to the amount of time spent, the amount of work covered, and the maximum credit allowed are not high enough to assure the best work. Anyone who has studied carefully the status of summer sessions knows that this conviction has a basis in fact.

Minimum length of summer sessions necessary for acceptance of credit.—The second question read, "What minimum length of summer session do you accept for credit in work?" The replies of nine state departments are that the summer session must be conducted for a minimum of six weeks in order that credit may be given for the work. Two states require a session of seven weeks; two states, eight weeks; and one state, twelve weeks. It should be said that, while a minimum term of six weeks is accepted, most state departments recommend and urge a longer session.

Several state departments of education mention the fact that the policy of giving credit for work done in summer sessions is in a form-

ative period. Summer work in high schools has been a local matter rather than a state matter because of the small number of high schools concerned, but there is an increasing realization that conditions governing the quantity and quality of the work need to be stipulated and controlled. This necessity concerns both the state departments of education and the local schools. In several states in which the number of high schools having summer sessions has reached considerable proportions, the state departments have defined standards which must be met by the high schools if they give credit for the work done. Probably the number of states in which policies governing summer sessions in high schools have been, or are being, stated and published is greater than is indicated in this study. Later in this report mention is made of some states in which the question of high-school summer sessions has been considered in a definite way and standards have been clearly stated.

Amount of credit that may be earned in a single summer session.—In answer to the third question ("How many units of credit do you accept from one summer session in high school?") eleven state departments of education report that they accept a maximum of one unit, three states accept a maximum of one and one-half units, two states accept a maximum of two units of work taken to make up deficiencies, and one state accepts only one-half unit. Clearly, the tendency is to urge that sessions be held for eight or nine weeks if credit is to be allowed in one unit or in one and one-half units. In a majority of instances pupils are advised to take half-year subjects or a half-unit in each of two subjects instead of a full unit in one subject. For example, the inadvisability of teaching a year of chemistry, or of English, or of Latin in a short term is voiced in a good many reports.

Basis of acceptance of summer-school credits.—The fourth question read, "Are summer-school credits accepted on the same basis as those earned in regular sessions?" Seventeen state departments of education reply affirmatively, one state replies negatively, and other states do not answer specifically. However, in most cases the reply is that, if regular standards have been met as to the quantity and quality of the work, the amount of time spent, the certification of teachers, etc., the acceptance of credits earned in summer sessions does not give rise to question.

Time requirements in summer sessions.—The fifth question was, "Do you require summer-school sessions to meet the standards of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools as to the time to be given to a subject?" The answers of twelve state departments of education are in the affirmative and six in the negative. Several state departments, while not answering the question definitely in the affirmative, give answers in another part of the questionnaire which make it clear that the usual standards must be met.

State regulations governing summer sessions.—The following quotations give the provisions governing summer sessions in various states as stated in bulletins issued by the state departments of education or in letters to the writer from officers connected with the departments. This statement of the provisions may be of help to superintendents and principals.

ALABAMA

A unit of credit for summer-school work is to represent exactly the same quality and quantity of work as during the regular session. The Carnegie unit has been accepted the country over in the definition of high-school credits. This unit requires the satisfactory completion of 120 clock hours of recitation on prepared work, with two hours of laboratory or shop work as a substitute for one hour of recitation on prepared work. Principals are expected to insist that credit shall be given for summer work in high-school subjects only when the work is covered as completely and satisfactorily, in both quality and quantity, as during the regular session.

It is recommended that the summer session cover a period of forty-five days. Where it is impossible to give forty-five days to the session, more intensive work will be necessary than is required in the regular session. No pupil shall carry more than two half-units of new work during any six weeks. When he carries this amount, he should not be permitted to carry any review or repeated work. Not more than one unit of repeated work should be carried in a single term of six weeks. Of course, no new work is to be carried by a pupil when he attempts to cover as much as a unit of review work in six weeks. No pupil should complete an entire unit of work in a new subject in six weeks.

The length of the recitation period should be sixty minutes. In laboratory sciences two hours of laboratory work should be covered each day in addition to recitation work. It is expected that two recitations will be held each day in a subject for which one-half unit of credit is earned in six weeks.

ARKANSAS

Summer-school work can be accepted only when the work is administered by properly constituted authorities and the work is taught by teachers having required preparation. Non-certificated tutors are not acceptable. The practice of

giving special examinations to pupils at the opening of school in the autumn is to be discouraged as setting a premium on loafing and idleness. Credits should be allowed on the basis of a certain number of prepared recitations—and recitations mean class work, not tutoring or home study followed by an examination. Merely passing an examination is not getting an education.

Standards.—The minimum term shall be six weeks. The minimum class period shall be sixty minutes. The maximum credit for six weeks' work shall be one unit.

Only those pupils who stand in achievement among the upper 25 per cent of the school may complete a unit in an advanced or new subject. A pupil who has failed for valid reasons might complete a unit in one subject. In like manner a pupil might complete two half-unit subjects. However, repeating pupils usually do not do as good work in summer as do pupils taking new work.

ILLINOIS

All regular standards should be met. No pupil should be permitted to earn more than one unit in a single summer session. Four forty-five-minute periods a day for five days a week for nine weeks will meet the requirements. Such a plan is recommended for a summer session in a recognized high school.

INDIANA

All high-school standards must be met in the summer-school work.

A minimum of eighty clock hours shall be spent, in recitation and preparation combined, in any subject for each half-unit of credit allowed. No pupil shall earn more than one unit of credit in one summer except by the special permission of the State Board of Education.

IOWA

Credit earned in high-school summer sessions where the normal pupil load is two subjects, each reciting two periods a day, will be accepted as follows: for a nine-week session, a maximum of one unit, or one-half unit in each subject; for an eight-week session, a maximum of four-fifths of a unit, or two-fifths in each subject; for a six-week session, two-thirds of a unit, or one-third of each subject.

MISSISSIPPI

Work done in summer sessions must equal in quality and quantity that done in the regular school terms. All summer work must be under properly constituted authorities.

Forty days is the minimum time in which a unit of credit in a new subject can be earned. An equivalent of 120 sixty-minute periods must be given to the work. This means class time. The time given a review (repeating) subject shall be one-half the time given a new subject. A failed subject with a yearly average below 60 per cent shall be rated as a new subject. Not more than one review subject and one new subject or two review subjects shall be taken for credit in one summer term.

NEW JERSEY

No pupil shall carry more than one advanced subject, that is, such a subject as he would begin regularly in high school or for which he has already received one half-year's credit. To receive credit for an advanced course (one-half unit), the pupil must have passed the course after recitation in the summer school aggregating not less than sixty sixty-minute periods. Credit in the first half of a new year-subject may not be given unless the pupil shall complete the second half in the regular high school.

NEW YORK¹

No pupil should be allowed to take more than two subjects.

To be approved, summer high schools must . . . be in session at least thirty-five actual school days exclusive of registration and examinations.

Class periods should be at least 80 minutes in length. A longer period, 120 minutes, is advised.

PENNSYLVANIA

The minimum total number of clock hours devoted to prepared class work in any given course of study during a summer session shall be sixty. The minimum number of school weeks per summer session, exclusive of time for registration, shall be six.

The maximum pupil load of courses pursued for credit shall be two half-unit courses. A pupil reviewing a course of study for credit shall be limited to one additional half-unit course for credit, and pupils reviewing more than one half-unit course shall not be registered in any other course for credit.

Credit for satisfactory completion of summer high school courses shall be based on 120 clock hours of prepared class work for one unit of credit.

Two hours of laboratory work or shop work shall be equivalent to one hour of prepared class work.

TEXAS

A pupil should not be permitted to earn more than one unit of credit in an eight-week summer term and not more than one and one-half units in a term of twelve weeks. No credit should be granted for any subject given in a summer school where the total time devoted to recitations in that subject is less than five-sixths of the time devoted to that subject in the regular school session.

The management of summer schools should be the same as in the regular sessions.

VIRGINIA

The summer school shall be administered by the regular school authorities and shall be supervised by the principal of the regular sessions or by a teacher approved by the principal or superintendent.

Summer sessions shall run for eight weeks, with sixty-minute periods or the equivalent. Each subject shall be taught for two session hours a day. No pupil shall be permitted to carry more than two subjects, totaling one unit of credit.

¹ Taken from *Summer High Schools 1930*. Handbook 37 of the University of the State of New York.

W. L. Spencer, director of secondary education in Oklahoma, says that the state department is recommending a nine-week term for summer sessions in high schools. Some schools are following this recommendation. A great many of the high schools, however, are conducting six-week sessions under the minimum standards. Professor Spencer mentions the fact that some of the state institutions of higher learning have summer sessions for practice-teachers in connection with the summer sessions. As the higher institutions have two six-week terms, these institutions desire that the sessions in the secondary schools be of the same length. However, the higher institutions are considering making a change to a nine-week single session for summer work.

INFORMATION FURNISHED BY STATE UNIVERSITIES

The following information was supplied by accrediting officers in thirty-three state universities.

Credit for summer work.—Twenty-five universities state that they give credit for work done in summer sessions in high schools, while two do not allow credit for such work.

In answer to the question, "What minimum length of session do you accept for credit for work done in summer school?" eleven universities report that they accept credit earned in a six-week summer term, one university requires a minimum of seven weeks, two universities require a minimum of eight weeks, and one university requires 126 hours of classroom work for one unit of credit, or 63 hours for one-half unit. One university says that the hour is the unit of measurement, leaving the inference that they use as a basis the standard of the North Central Association requiring 120 hours of recitation on prepared work. Four universities say definitely that the standard of the North Central Association as to time spent on a course is the basis for crediting summer work.

Amount of credit that may be earned in a single summer session.—Fourteen universities accept a maximum of one unit of credit for one session, one accepts one and one-half units, and two accept two units for a twelve-week term or one unit for a six-week term. The fact should be mentioned that, among those universities which accept a maximum of one unit or more for a session, the length of term

varies. That is, some universities accept credits earned in a six-week session, while others will not accept credits earned in a session of less than eight weeks.

Miscellaneous requirements for summer-school credits.—All universities that answered accept credits earned in summer sessions on the same basis as credits earned in regular sessions. Twenty universities do not limit the number of summer-school credits that may be offered for entrance, while four schools limit the number of summer-school credits. One question asked whether the university requires that the North Central Association standard as to the time given to a subject be met in summer-school sessions. Without exception the universities answering this question say that they expect this standard to be met. There is the realization, however, that a great many summer sessions in high schools—probably the majority of them—do not meet the standard fully.

GENERAL COMMENTS

Since the writer did not possess data showing the cities with summer sessions in high school, the inquiry was sent more or less haphazardly to ninety-six superintendents and principals. The result was that forty-two of the eighty-two schools replying were found to have summer sessions. The fact that 50 per cent of the schools answering the inquiry have summer sessions cannot be used as a basis for estimating the number of schools with summer sessions in any section of the country. Nevertheless, the conclusion may be drawn that summer sessions in high schools are becoming a factor to be considered in high-school education.

The study shows that it is not only the failing pupils who are enrolling in summer sessions but that the pupils who want to advance rapidly are also entering the summer schools. The ratio between the number of pupils of these two classes is not shown in this investigation.

The length of summer sessions in high schools is variable, ranging from six weeks to ten weeks in the schools reported on. The opinion of the writer, based on the reports from the state departments of education and from state universities, is that, in those states in which the state departments and the institutions of higher learning

have taken up definitely the matter of accrediting the work done in summer sessions, the tendency on the part of high schools is to conduct longer sessions than are conducted by the high schools in other states. For example, of seven high schools in Iowa which report that they have summer sessions, five have sessions of eight or nine weeks. Of six high schools in Texas which report that they have summer sessions, all have sessions of eight weeks or more.

As summer sessions become better organized and become more nearly an integral part of the regular work of the schools, the tendency will be to limit more rigidly the amount of credit that may be earned in a single session. The prevailing practice is to allow the study of two half-year subjects or, under certain conditions, two halves of year-subjects. State accrediting agencies strongly discourage, and in some cases actually prohibit, the allowance of more than this amount of credit.

The general practice among state accrediting agencies is to accept summer-school credits provided that the high schools have met reasonable standards as to the quantity and quality of the work done in the summer session.

This brief and incomplete study carries no inference that summer sessions thus far are tending to bring about all-year school sessions. That is, there is no tendency shown to make the summer session one quarter of a four-quarter school year.

AN EXPERIMENT WITH A PLUS-AND-MINUS SYSTEM OF MARKING

ROBERT GORSLINE

Superintendent of Schools, Hanover, Michigan

In Flathead County High School, Kalispell, Montana, during the school year 1929-30 three teachers experimented with a plus-and-minus system of marking as opposed to marks showing degrees of excellence. Each of these teachers had one class in which the passing mark was plus and the failing mark was minus.

There was a general feeling among the teachers in this school that too often the pupil simply works for a mark and is not greatly interested in the work itself. They believed that marks are too much a matter of guesswork to have much meaning, and no two teachers could agree on the standards to be used for different marks.

The purpose of the experiment was to determine whether pupils will work without the stimulus of marks. The results of the study were somewhat conflicting, but they were of sufficient interest to influence two of the teachers to experiment further. The teachers worked out no definite rules for the carrying-out of the experiment except that each pupil should receive either a passing mark of plus or a failing mark of minus.

The normal-curve system of marking is more or less rigidly adhered to in this school, 1, 2, 3, and 4 being passing marks and 5 failure. The marks of all pupils in the classes in business practice were averaged together in one normal curve. The percentages of pupils in all these classes who during the school year 1929-30 received averages of 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 and the corresponding percentages in the experimental class, in which plus and minus marks were used, are given in Table I.

The average intelligence quotient of all the classes was 101, while the average intelligence quotient of the experimental class was 103. The difference between the intelligence quotients was too slight to cause an appreciable difference in the results. The marks in the

experimental class were slightly, but consistently, better than the average of those in all the classes. In an attempt to learn what effect the system of marking had on the marks, every member of the experimental class was interviewed, and it was made clear that the purpose of the interview was to learn whether the pupils' reactions made it advisable to continue the experiment. Fifty-five per cent of the twenty pupils in the class liked the plus-and-minus system of marking, 25 per cent were definitely opposed to it, and 20 per cent had no preference. The reason given by all but one of those opposed to the system was that they "never knew just how they stood." One girl could not give a reason, simply saying that she "didn't like it." One pupil with an exceptionally high intelligence

TABLE I
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS WHOSE WORK AVERAGED
MARKS OF 1, 2, 3, 4, AND 5 IN ALL CLASSES IN BUSI-
NESS PRACTICE AND IN EXPERIMENTAL CLASS

Average Mark	All Classes	Experimental Class
1.....	8	11
2.....	20	24
3.....	41	35
4.....	21	23
5.....	10	7

quotient, who barely passed in her other subjects but whose work in this class was better than the average, said, "I don't like the plus-and-minus system because you have to work too hard. You never know whether you are going to pass." Another, an honor pupil, said, "I don't like it. I like to see what I get and what others get." The reasons given by those who favored the system were also interesting. One boy said, "I'm just as good as the rest. We all get pluses." An unusually good pupil said, "We're all on the same level."

The plus-and-minus system is much the best from the instructor's point of view. The day on which report cards are distributed is just as pleasant as any other. No pupil feels that he has been discriminated against. Everyone is satisfied except, of course, the pupils who fail. These stand out more noticeably than ever and receive all the attention. The result is that they resolve to do better.

The plus-and-minus system of marking was not allowed to interfere with the honor roll. In the class in business practice no pupil

knew what his marks were, but they were reported to the office so that the pupil could still be placed on the honor roll. In the other two experimental classes no effort was made to keep the pupils' marks secret. The marks that a pupil received on his report card were either plus or minus, but he could go to the teacher privately at any time and learn what his marks were. This difference in procedure may account for the fact that in one of these two experimental classes the brighter pupils were satisfied merely to pass.

The results of this experiment seem to show that the plus-and-minus system of marking is well worth while and that it should receive more attention than is now given it. However, the experiment was not carried far enough to justify definite conclusions. The personalities of the teachers were not taken into consideration. This factor may account for a difference of opinion among the three teachers as to the results of the project.

One of the experimental classes was a class in biology. The testimony of the teacher of that class was as follows:

The class in which I tried the plus-and-minus experiment is scheduled just before noon—the time when, according to my experience, the best class averages invariably fall. The class contains some of the best pupils in the school. During the first marking period the average of this class was very high. There was a distinct slump in the second marking period, and in spite of my efforts the slump continued through the third marking period. Some of the pupils maintained a high grade of work during the entire time, but the number of such pupils was smaller than it should have been. On the other hand, only one person in this class was in the low 10 per cent of my pupils. The great majority seemed satisfied with themselves as long as the plus grade appeared. The stimulus of competition being removed, all but two or three adopted the policy of "getting by."

The third experimental class was an English class. The teacher of that class wrote:

At Flathead County High School, a noticeable interest in plus-and-minus marks has appeared in the last two years. Before that time the feeling of the pupils was against the idea, but now they seem to favor it quite heartily. My first definite experiment in this direction has been with a so-called "retarded" group of Sophomores in English. The plus and minus marks help tremendously, as the pupils do not feel the degradation that goes with a "4" [a mark signifying that the pupil barely passed]. The actual achievement of this group is about the same as it was before the new system was started, but the attitude of the pupils is much better. Part of this changed attitude, of course, may be the natural change as the year advances; but some of the change, I feel, is definitely due to the plus-and-minus system of marking.

experimental class were slightly, but consistently, better than the average of those in all the classes. In an attempt to learn what effect the system of marking had on the marks, every member of the experimental class was interviewed, and it was made clear that the purpose of the interview was to learn whether the pupils' reactions made it advisable to continue the experiment. Fifty-five per cent of the twenty pupils in the class liked the plus-and-minus system of marking, 25 per cent were definitely opposed to it, and 20 per cent had no preference. The reason given by all but one of those opposed to the system was that they "never knew just how they stood." One girl could not give a reason, simply saying that she "didn't like it." One pupil with an exceptionally high intelligence

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DETERMINING INSTRUCTIONAL EFFICIENCY

J. S. GEORGES

University High School, University of Chicago

It may be assumed that the real test of learning is the reaction of the pupil to the situations in life requiring an application of the processes and concepts of a unit supposed to have been learned. Morrison has stated, "The test of a real product of learning is . . . its permanency, and . . . its habitual use in the ordinary activities of life."¹ Nevertheless, the administration of immediate tests for the purpose of measuring and determining instructional efficiency is a classroom necessity. The administration of the life-test is not always within the power of the instructor under the present educational system, and resort is made to various types of unit tests and other means of measuring learning. The interpretation of test results for the purpose of determining instructional efficiency is the theme of this article.

By instructional efficiency is meant the ratio of the actual increase in learning to the maximum increase possible, and its determination is applicable to a phase of instruction, such as the presentation of an element of a unit or the learning of the entire unit, and likewise to the instruction given a single individual or an entire class. Two specific illustrations will be presented: first, the instructional efficiency of a presentation of an element of a unit and, second, the instructional efficiency of the teaching of an entire unit. The former will be based on the responses on a pretest and a presentation test administered before and after the presentation but before the period of assimilation, while the latter determination will utilize the responses on the pretest and on the mastery test.

The derivation of the formula which is designed to measure the instructional efficiency of presentation and which is readily applicable to any other phase of instruction will be illustrated by means

¹ Henry C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*, p. 29. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1926.

of an example selected from a unit in algebra. The unit was presented to the pupils by means of mimeographed sheets explaining the application of the formulas of direct linear variation to verbal problems in which the relationships were implied but not stated.

Table I gives indexes of the correct responses of the class, which were secured by first dividing the number of correct responses made by the class on any item by the number of pupils in the class and then multiplying by 100. Indexes are shown for the same test administered before and after the presentation. The indexes for

TABLE I
INDEXES OF CORRECT RESPONSES MADE BY A CLASS IN
ALGEBRA ON PRETEST AND PRESENTATION TEST
OF AN ELEMENT IN AN INSTRUCTIONAL UNIT

Test Item	Pretest	Presentation Test
1.....	62	83
2.....	73	73
3.....	89	100
4.....	78	95
5.....	89	89
6.....	17	62
7.....	28	78
8.....	11	78
9.....	0	39
10.....	0	39
11.....	50	83
12.....	0	11
13.....	0	11

the various items are reduced to a comparable basis by the following formulas:

$$p = \frac{\sum p_i}{n} \quad \text{and} \quad P = \frac{\sum P_i}{n}$$

p_i and P_i represent the indexes of the items in the pretest and presentation tests, respectively; n represents the number of items; and p and P represent the indexes for the pretest and presentation tests, respectively. Thus, $p = 38.2$ and $P = 64.7$. The actual gain in learning as a result of the presentation is obviously $P - p = 64.7 - 38.2 = 26.5$. The maximum gain possible is $100 - p = 100 - 38.2 = 61.8$. Instructional efficiency is defined to be the ratio of the actual gain to the maximum gain, or 26.5 divided by 61.8, or 42.9 per cent.

When these results are written algebraically, the following formula of instructional efficiency is secured:

$$E = \frac{P - p}{100 - p}$$

p and P are the quantities already defined, and E is the instructional efficiency.

TABLE II
INDEXES OF CORRECT RESPONSES OF A CLASS IN ALGEBRA
ON PRETEST AND MASTERY TEST OF
AN INSTRUCTIONAL UNIT

Test Item	Pretest	Mastery Test
1.....	62	86
2.....	73	85
3.....	89	93
4.....	78	94
5.....	89	92
6.....	17	60
7.....	28	42
8.....	11	98
9.....	0	66
10.....	0	55
11.....	50	98
12.....	0	40
13.....	0	32

For the second illustration the results of the pretest on the same element are compared with those of the final, or mastery, test. The test items used in the mastery test were of the same form and content as those of the pretest, although a different test was used to cover the entire unit. When the formula is applied to Table II, P being replaced by M (the index of the mastery test), the results are:

$$p = \frac{\sum p_i}{n} = 38.2 \quad \text{and} \quad M = \frac{\sum M_i}{n} = 72.4$$

When these values are substituted in the formula for instructional efficiency, the result is: $E = \frac{M - p}{100 - p} = \frac{72.4 - 38.2}{100 - 38.2} = 55.3$ per cent.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

Two estimable studies of supervisory organization and practice.—Anyone familiar with the literature of supervision has been aware of the distinct shift in recent books from the earlier discussions of technique and practical problems toward more objective studies into conditions and bases of supervision. Two new studies¹ have just been added to this rapidly growing body of factual material.

One of the most acute problems in supervision is that of the proper allocation of duty and co-ordination of function among the various officers charged with supervisory responsibilities. Despite its practical acuteness the attention given to this problem until very recently has been chiefly on the part of theorists, although a few outstanding superintendents have attacked their local problems with commendable vigor. Neither group has had many factual data upon which to base conclusions and organizations. The first study under review, made by Professor Brink, a colleague of Professor Melby, is in large measure an expansion of Professor Melby's study published late in 1929 (*A Critical Study of the Existing Organization and Administration of Supervision*).

Professor Brink states that, while there have been a number of good discussions of the functions of supervision, no one has directed much attention to the functions of the chief supervisory officer, namely, the superintendent. In cities of any size the superintendent must delegate much of his supervisory responsibility. Thus arises the acute problem of allocating function and co-ordinating effort. The study presents data from cities with populations of 25,000 to 100,000 in a manner distinctly similar to that of Professor Melby in his study of cities with populations of less than 25,000. The general picture presented is the same as in the earlier study, namely, considerable confusion and chaos. Of special interest is the fact that the situation of the special supervisors in large cities is as bad as, or worse than, that of the same officers in the smaller cities. The problem

¹ a) William G. Brink, *Direction and Coordination of Supervision: Current Practices of City Superintendents*. Northwestern University Contributions to Education, School of Education Series, No. 3. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1930. Pp. xiv+118. \$1.50.

b) J. M. Hughes and E. O. Melby, *Supervision of Instruction in High School: A Study of Techniques and Organization*. Northwestern University Contributions to Education, School of Education Series, No. 4. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1930. Pp. xvi+192. \$1.50.

of the special supervisor is inviting more and more attention, as is indicated by such studies as the one under review and by the material in the Third Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association. An interesting feature of the present study is the inclusion of the actual supervisory organization and procedure in four cities.

The reviewer's sole objection would be to Professor Brink's recommendation of a given plan of organization as set forth in chapter vii. The plan itself is entirely sound and is one of the two widely used in the country. It is interesting to note that the commission which prepared the Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence engaged in vigorous discussion on this very point and finally concluded that the two basic plans (of which Professor Brink's is one) were equally valuable. The supervisory plan to be selected depends upon the existing set-up and personnel and other local conditions.

Professor Brink's material is well worth the attention of city superintendents in all types of systems, particularly for study in conjunction with the volume by Fred C. Ayer and A. S. Barr (*The Organization of Supervision*), the Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, and the Third Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction.

The second study under review is one of the first of any length to deal with high-school supervision. The inquiry covers not only the types of supervisory organizations to be found in high schools but also the actual activities utilized in supervision at this level. A wealth of detail is presented, with regard to which but a few comments can be made here.

It is interesting to note that despite the presence of both principals and department heads in the high school the superintendent still retains, as in the case of the elementary school, a varying amount of direction and authority. A second point of unusual interest is that high-school teachers seem to want specific, specialized supervision. This situation is identical with that found among elementary-school teachers and is the more surprising in view of the high-school tradition to the contrary. Space need not be taken to comment on the number and kind of traditional and more modern techniques actually used in supervision. The comments of the surveyors are particularly penetrating in practically all instances. It is fortunate that the study was made by two professors of education rather than by a more specialized secondary-school group; the typical traditions and prejudices of high-school teachers and principals do not becloud the issue, especially with regard to general method, demonstration teaching, and the improvement of teachers in service.

Chapter ii presents a good summary of the various types of supervisory organizations to be found in the high schools surveyed. The authors modestly state that not a sufficient number of high schools were included to guarantee that the list is complete and sensibly avoid trying to decide the relative merits of the schemes.

The study should be a good basis for further analyses of high-school super-

vision and for sympathetic study of secondary-school progress, and it should call attention sharply to some of the salient problems in teaching at the secondary level.

W. H. BURTON

Young bright children in senior high school.—The relatively recent scientific study of the individual differences of school children has led naturally to a keen interest in the extreme deviates. A book,¹ which is, therefore, certain to be of interest to all educators, attempts to answer the following eight specific questions concerning a group of fifty-six children having intelligence that placed them in the top centile of the juvenile population.

1. Do young bright children become intellectually mediocre when they reach high school?
2. How do young bright children compare with the generality in high-school scholastic achievement?
3. What are the extent and nature of failures among young bright children in high school?
4. Do young bright children participate in extra-curricular activities of the high school?
5. Do young bright children have many interests outside high school?
6. What are the teachers' judgments of young bright children in high school?
7. What intentions do young bright children express regarding education beyond high school?
8. What is the attitude of the young gifted in high school toward rapid advancement? [p. 2.]

The fifty-six gifted children, nineteen girls and thirty-seven boys, were selected by the Stanford-Binet scale before they were nine years of age and were followed for seven consecutive years—three years in elementary school and four years in high school. During this time they were examined in three different years with the Stanford-Binet scale; with the Army Alpha examination, Form 7, in October, 1924; and with the Army Alpha examination, Form 5, in 1929. In addition to these objective measures the author had available the following data: teachers' judgments on eight traits given in 1927 and 1929; school records, including attendance records; subject marks by semesters; regents' marks; scholastic honors; activity honors; and returns on a questionnaire filled in by the children themselves. Comparisons are made with a control group of pupils who entered high school at the time the majority of the gifted group entered and a control group of survivors.

Briefly the answers to the eight questions are as follows:

1. At the mean age of fifteen years 53.6 per cent of the group had already reached the top centile of adults as measured by the Army Alpha examination.

¹ Edna Emma Lamson, *A Study of Young Gifted Children in Senior High School*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 424. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930. Pp. viii+118. \$1.50.

2. Although the pupils were two years younger on the average than the control group, the scholastic achievement of the gifted group was distinctly superior.

3. The gifted group had a smaller percentage of failures, fewer failures for each failing pupil, fewer failures for each member of the group, a smaller average number of failures, and a higher average failing mark.

4. Their participation in extra-curriculum activities exceeded that of the control group by 25 per cent.

5. The outside interests of the gifted group included reading current fiction, studying music, and participating to a limited extent in social dancing.

6. Teachers' judgments revealed a superiority for the gifted group that is statistically significant in intelligence, sustained effort, and general quality of work. The smallest differences between the gifted group and the control group were in conceit and popularity with schoolmates. The gifted group were given the higher average rating in all eight traits rated by the teachers. The average rating in 1929 was higher than the average rating in 1927.

7. Eighty-seven and one-half per cent of the members of the gifted group expected to attend college. All the girls replying on this point planned to attend colleges for women. Sixty-nine per cent of the boys replying expected to attend colleges for men.

8. Seventy-five per cent of the members of the gifted group stated that they were glad to have been members of the special-opportunity classes, where they received both rapid advancement and an enriched curriculum.

Attempts to make a follow-up study such as this reveal the weakness of our measuring instruments. This weakness is apparent when one tries to ascertain whether or not the best centile of a nine-year old population will be in the best centile of the adult population. The instrument used for measuring the nine-year old children was standardized on a small sampling of the total population. The instrument for measuring the adult population (Army Alpha examination) was standardized on a large sampling of *literate* adults. The author, fully realizing the difficulty involved in answering her first question, qualifies her answer accordingly. Even though one might not be able to say with certainty that this gifted group maintained exactly their high intellectual status and remained in the top centile of their age group, the results suggest very strongly that there was no trend toward intellectual mediocrity during the seven years.

W. S. MILLER

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

The influence on scholarship of factors other than intelligence.—Many studies have been made of the correlation between achievement in high school and the results of intelligence tests. It is, therefore, with a feeling of relief that one turns to a study¹ which does not assume that this question is still unanswered

¹ Austin Henry Turney, *Factors Other than Intelligence that Affect Success in High School*. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1930. Pp. x+136. \$1.50.

but attempts to find out what factors other than intelligence are potent determiners of academic success. Ratings on self-confidence, industry, leadership, co-operativeness, originality, perseverance, dependability, and ambition were made of the entire enrolment of the University of Minnesota High School twice during two school years, and correlations were found between these ratings and school marks. The results of one year may be given as typical. The correlation of the average mark with mental age was .65; with intelligence quotient, .64; with the various ratings for qualities of character, from .62 to .77; and with the combined rating of all traits, .81. The multiple correlation for predicting marks, a combination of intelligence quotient and total personality ratings, was .86, .81, .87, and .84 for four different classes.

If one considers the unreliability of marks and of the ratings, it is probable that very little remains after one has analyzed achievement into a combination of ability and the character traits for which ratings were obtained. The trait which correlated most highly with achievement was ambition. The correlation of personal attractiveness with achievement was low (average .16) but positive. Similar findings were obtained when a group of pupils showing high achievement was compared with a group showing low achievement. Factors in which no differences were shown between the group of pupils showing high achievement and the group showing low achievement were sex, participation in extra-curriculum activities, and the results of a questionnaire dealing with introversion-extroversion, feelings of inferiority and superiority, and worries.

This study indicates that, as an indication of academic success, the qualities of character on which ratings were obtained are more important than intelligence as measured by intelligence tests. The results agree with previous studies, notably the one by Cecile White Flemming entitled *A Detailed Analysis of Achievement in the High School* (Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 196). One may question the results, however, for the reason that the same teachers who assigned the marks also gave the ratings and whatever halo effect there may have been between the marks and ratings would tend to raise the correlations. This difficulty might be eliminated in one of two ways: either use standardized tests to measure achievement or have intelligence rated by the teachers in the same way that the character traits are rated. Whether or not character traits would be found to have a higher relation to achievement than has intelligence if the experiment were carried out as suggested, the study under review at least demonstrates that character traits are equally as significant as intelligence in determining achievement.

The approach to this problem through the rating of traits, although showing the importance of character traits in determining achievement, does not give teachers much help in understanding their own responsibility for influencing character in order to improve achievement. Another approach to this problem would be to rate particular behavior characteristics. The rating device proposed by Hartshorne, May, and Maller in *Studies in Service and Self-Control*, known as the "Guess Who" technique, enables the investigator to obtain accurate

ratings of specific items of behavior. If the approach were made in this way, the problem would probably appear to be more a matter of a pupil's adjustment (primarily to the curriculum but also in his personal relations with the teachers, pupils, and at home) and less a matter of abstract character traits of ambition, perseverance, and the like.

Turney's study directs attention to the importance of factors other than intelligence in determining achievement and challenges workers to proceed further in determining the essential nature of the factors.

The monograph can be cited as a model dissertation. It is well printed, contains an excellent summary of previous work in the field, gives a clear statement of the problem and the method of solution, and presents the results in well-planned graphs and tables. A reader always finds it annoying, however, after being told that certain of the instruments used in a study are shown in the Appendix to be informed later that the Appendix has not been printed with the monograph but may be seen in a university library. It is to be regretted that important tests or schedules or raw data are often omitted in the printing of research studies—a practice which distinctly limits their value for the careful reader.

PERCIVAL M. SYMONDS

TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

A practical guide for classroom testing.—When the testing movement was in its early stages, the main emphasis was placed on standardized tests. Courses in tests and measurements were designed largely to acquaint teachers with the available tests and to make clear the scientific principles on which standardized tests were constructed.

A noticeable transition has taken place, however, during the last ten years. We have discovered that the most important service that can be rendered to classroom teachers in a measurement course is teaching the technique of constructing home-made objective tests. A large amount of the testing done by the classroom teacher must necessarily be the measurement of the immediate results of daily lessons and larger units of work which are not suited to measurement by standardized tests.

As a result of this shift of emphasis numbers of books which discuss the preparation and use of new-type tests are now being published. Lang's book¹ impresses the reviewer as being an exceptionally valuable book of this type. It is concrete, practical, simple, and elementary. A generous portion of the space is given to examples of test items of the types described and to examples of ways of using these tests.

The book has chapters on the history and functions of examinations, the characteristics of a good examination, the traditional examination, the various

¹ Albert R. Lang, *Modern Methods in Written Examinations*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930. Pp. xx+314. \$1.90.

new-type tests, the uses of tests, changing test scores into marks, and administrative problems in testing. The author evidently believes in what he preaches, for he has included at the end of the book a comprehensive new-type test on the book itself.

The volume is not in any sense a research report. It is a well-organized collection of constructive suggestions, apparently formulated through the exercise of the author's judgment and by consulting the experience of the best writers and teachers.

The reviewer believes that the author has done well the very important and worthy task which he has attempted.

C. C. CRAWFORD

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

The values of new-type tests in history.—Two movements have been characteristic of teaching in the social studies. The first grows out of a realization that the teaching of history is concerned with the inculcation of attitudes and ideals and is a reaction against the conventional emphasis on an almost parrot-like memorization of acts as ends in themselves. The second results from the fact that the development of the new-type examination offers a medium particularly adapted to discovering how well *facts* have been mastered by the pupil. These two movements are apparently conflicting. In theory at least, we reject the instilling of facts as the final goal of teaching, but all the while our improved testing devices lead us to emphasize this very rejected factual content.

Elene Michell's book¹ offers a reasonable way out of this dilemma. The author holds that "teaching and not measurement is the dominant purpose of examination" (p. 7). An improved classroom procedure may result from the frequent use of tests of information because such tests will make possible the elimination of factual drill from the class period. The teacher will be free to use the recitation hour for study, guidance, and discussion. Facts, in the view of the author, are prerequisite to attaining the more nearly ultimate goals—attitudes and ideals.

The book gives consideration to the characteristics of the new-type tests and to their peculiar value in teaching the social studies. The new-type examinations are compared with the essay type in such respects as objectivity, comprehensiveness, reliability, and validity.

The author gives four ways in which tests may be used to improve instruction: (1) diagnosing learning difficulties, (2) individualizing instruction, (3) raising the pupils' standards, and (4) providing more efficient measures of achievement.

Considerable attention is given to methods of construction and administering informal tests. The novice in the construction of tests of this type will find

¹ Elene Michell, *Teaching Values in New-Type History Tests*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1930. Pp. x+180.

this section of the book of invaluable assistance. Even the teacher more experienced in these matters will find many suggestions which will lead to improved effectiveness in the use of tests.

The final chapter deals with an experiment conducted by the author. A series of tests was given in American history classes in four high schools. Questions which arise from attempts to experiment with testing programs are answered in the light of this one study. This chapter is the least satisfactory in the book, for in many instances the data presented seem hardly adequate to support the conclusions drawn. This defect is perhaps caused by the facts that the experiment has only an indirect bearing on some of the questions and that a rather small number of cases is involved. On the whole, however, the book should prove highly valuable as a manual for aiding teachers of the social studies to improve and refine their testing procedures.

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

OLIVER R. FLOYD

Improving a teacher-training curriculum.—A most valuable addition to literature dealing with the problem of achieving efficient functional curriculums for training teachers is the report¹ of recent research conducted in the College of Education of the University of Minnesota. The published volume is an abbreviation of the original report and gives the plan of the investigation, the main findings, and significant extracts to illustrate the longer tables not included.

The first step of the investigation was the analysis into 814 topics of the detailed syllabuses submitted by instructors of those courses in education in the University of Minnesota required of students preparing for high-school teaching. The second step was the ascertainment of the allotment of time and of the kind of treatment which the faculty gave each of the topics—whether major, minor, regular, or incidental. The third step was to submit the list of topics to alumni for evaluation. In this way were procured judgments of one hundred graduates of the preceding three years who had taken all the courses and who were engaged in high-school teaching. The fourth step was the presentation of the findings for faculty use, and the fifth step was the selection of content and modification of treatment on the basis of the analysis and the evaluation. Using the consensus of alumni opinion, the author set up objective thresholds which resulted in the elimination of 111 of the 814 topics. The techniques for the control of the treatment of the remaining topics were highly analytical and involved many objective considerations, but objective determinative standards were not employed. Rather, a wealth of fact was laid before the instructors in the form of tables for each course and ingenious profile charts for each topic.

The analysis of content and treatment yielded objective measurements of

¹ W. E. Peik, *The Professional Education of High School Teachers: An Analysis and Evaluation of the Prescribed Courses in Education for Prospective High School Teachers at the University of Minnesota*. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1930. Pp. xviii+184.

overlapping. The evaluation by alumni was rather unfavorable to the course in history of education and somewhat unfavorable to the course in educational sociology. As a result of these evaluations the author recommended the removal of the two courses from the required curriculum but recommended that provision be made for such specific topics from those courses as the evaluative thresholds admitted. In general, alumni considered their training in technique inadequate as compared with their training in the theory of education.

All in all, this work must be recognized as brilliant and highly serviceable research, affording outstanding contributions in technique and in findings. The reviewer would have been pleased to find a more adequate recognition of the limitations of evaluation by "run-of-the-mine" teachers who are directed by inferior, average, and superior administrators and who are located in schools and communities affording inferior, average, and superior opportunities for the realization of educational ideals. Curricular derivation must take into account ideals as well as the practical situation; it must reflect the superior insights of leaders as well as the views of average workers; it must reckon with the desirability of adding new topics as they are contributed by the scientific and philosophic study of frontier thinkers.

Not only should this work be studied with care by all who have responsibility for the training of teachers; it also should be found generally useful for curriculum improvement in all professional schools because it exemplifies a wealth of techniques, especially in the analytic method.

PERCIVAL W. HUTSON

UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH

The campus of a country day school.—An interesting and helpful book¹ is intended to be of service to those who are responsible for the buildings and grounds of schools in the country. It may be used in evaluating an existing campus, in planning the layout of a new one, or in selecting a site. It deals with location, terrain, utilization of the campus, approaches and inclosures, location and availability of service systems—such as water supply, light, heat, and power—and provides a score card for the measurement of the various items. It is attractively illustrated and gives detailed drawings for football, soccer, baseball, and hockey fields.

The book is a business-like piece of work. It should be of very definite assistance to those who contemplate improvements in buildings and grounds and especially to those who are planning to establish a country day school.

WILFORD M. AIKIN

JOHN BURROUGHS SCHOOL
CLAYTON, MISSOURI

¹ George D. Strayer, N. L. Engelhardt, and Thomas C. Burton, *Campus Standards for Country Day and Boarding Schools*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930. Pp. iv+52.

How to study—for students in senior high schools and in the Freshman year of college.—A recent book¹ offers "suggestions that will be helpful to the learner in discovering worth-while purposes, or in developing effective procedures in realizing these purposes" (p. vii). The author of the book says, "An effort has been made to be practical, and to offer real help to real students in solving real difficulties" (p. ix). The volume represents a noteworthy attempt to assemble practical suggestions on how to study, many of which are regularly offered by good teachers to their students.

The successive chapters deal with the following subject-matter fields in turn: literature, composition, foreign languages, mathematics, physics and chemistry, biology, history, other social studies, the practical arts, physical education and health, and the fine arts. Chapters range in length from twenty-six to forty-one pages. In each chapter from eleven to fifteen possible pupil difficulties are listed, and numerous suggestions for overcoming each difficulty are offered. In each case the suggestions are followed by three or four "assignments" directing the student to further study or research.

Since the author makes his suggestions directly to the student through the printed page, he attempts to use a style and vocabulary adapted to high-school students. Nevertheless, for all practical purposes, he is frequently talking to the teacher "over the pupil's shoulder." Many suggestions in the book might be more effective if addressed directly to the teacher or administrator. For example, whether foreign-language students "learn by the direct method" (p. 83) or "join language clubs, societies, and associations" (p. 84) more often depends upon the teaching or administrative policy of the school than upon the option of the students.

Many principals and teachers will disagree with the author's statement that "the greatest value will be derived from the use of the book as a text in a regular course in how to study" (p. x). This disagreement will be based in part on certain practical difficulties, such as the following: (1) Few teachers are capable of interpreting to a class specific methods in all subject-matter fields. (2) Few faculties will delegate willingly to one of their number the function of interpreter of special methods to their students. (3) In a how-to-study class, whatever may be the subject under discussion (unless certain phases of English be excepted), there will be numerous pupils who are unconcerned because they have already taken the course or because they are not taking it or because they have decided that they never intend to take it. A wide separation of method and subject matter would seem to be an inevitable and undesirable result.

The author's second suggestion will undoubtedly meet with favor: "The English teacher can use much of the first two chapters, the foreign-language teacher the third, and so on" (p. x). However, some teachers and administrators would prefer separate manuals, each dealing with a specific subject-matter field.

¹ Claude C. Crawford, *Studying the Major Subjects*. Los Angeles, California: C. C. Crawford (University of Southern California), 1930. Pp. xiv+384. \$2.00.

The book "in a way . . . is a pioneer effort" (p. viii), and principals and teachers should form first-hand impressions of its function and usefulness.

ROY O. BILLET

A volume in vocational guidance, vocational education, and citizenship instruction.—A broad yet thoroughly practical philosophy of education and of life is requisite to appreciation of Professor Hill's service through his new book.¹ One must believe that the world of work can be characterized and interpreted on the printed page; that vocational education is as much a mental as a physical preparation; that false, youthful impressions of service demands can as well be thoughtfully avoided as painfully corrected; that young persons are capable of self-appraisal in relation to careers; and that attitudes such as thrift, co-operation, respect for work, and happiness in labor can be developed without preaching.

The book is a compilation of short writings and extracts selected for pupils who are nearing occupational decisions and who may or may not be privileged to have contact with trained counselors. The first third of the volume describes present-day economic organization and practice, while the remainder particularizes employments and sets forth factors of choice.

There are fifteen parts, or chapters, each comprising from seven to twenty-one readings of an average length of three and one-half pages. In addition to these two hundred major entries, one hundred brief and appropriate quotations and some thirty illustrations are included.

Two hundred authors and literature showing a wide range as to nature and recency have been represented. The reviewer commends the selections utilized and their classification, as well as the author's own materials which have been included to fill in the gaps. Special significance attaches to statements of principles, lists of criteria, rules, classifications, and codes. These are rather durable and, therefore, highly necessary in a portrayal of a changeful world. Excellent judgment has been evidenced, likewise, in the quoting of writers little known, in the descriptions of many common-place and menial jobs, and in the detailed attention given to the daily doings of typical workmen.

A book of this nature is an indispensable supplement to the textbook and outline for "occupations classes." Formal courses in civics, introductory sociology, and elementary economics will be improved by its use. Counselors will be relieved of some work because certain valued concepts now presented directly may be secured by the pupils through the reading of interesting selections varied in source and style.

Teachers generally will profit from these pages, and parents should be grateful that such a volume has become available to their children. There is much

¹ Howard C. Hill, *Readings in Vocational Life*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1930. Pp. xvi+640. \$1.80.

of immediate interest to persons of any age, much of homely merit, much that elders are unable effectively to say to youth.

HOMER J. SMITH

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

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